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Village Growth 1940-50

By Edmund deS. Brunner†

ABSTRACT

Preliminary census returns indicate that places of 1000 to 2500 population have increased in population during the last intercensal period beyond expectations, even making a rough allowance for suburban developments. Data on this point are presented, along with results based on former censuses, even though there are some elements of non-comparability. Certain possible explanations of the 1940-50 trends are advanced.

Part I

Everyone knows that the growth of population in the United States 1940-50 has exceeded all expectations of a decade ago. Migration within the nation has also been unprecedented. How has small town America fared in this decade? This article attempts a partial answer to this question. It deals with incorporated centers which in 1940 had between 1,000 and 2,499 inhabitants and with those smaller places which grew beyond the 1,000 mark. It is based on the preliminary census counts. The Census has announced that the total error in the initial reports involves largely persons enumerated away from home and estimates that total of these at less than one-half of one per cent of the population. It is not likely that this and other revisions will materially affect the answer to the question posed. No data are presented for places of less than 1,000 population. These have not yet been made available by the Census. It is hoped a further analysis can be made of this group when the data are at hand. The form in which the data are presented follows that used in previous

studies of the same nature in which the author has participated¹ but in more simplified form. The sixty New England incorporated villages considered in 1940 have also been eliminated.

It is very important to note two additional factors of non-comparability between the previous studies and the present one. Since no reports are available on places having a population of less than 1,000 in 1950, there is no information in this article about the number of places 1,000 or more in population in 1940 which dropped below this point in the census period just closed.² On the other hand, places with less than 1,000 inhabitants in 1940 which grew into the next category were reported. The number of these by census divisions appears below. In the second place, an attempt has been made to give some indication of the effect of the suburban

¹ Cf. Brunner and Kolb, *Rural Social Trends* (New York: 1933), pp. 74-81. This covers the decades 1910-1930 and separately 1920-1930. Also, E. deS. Brunner and L. Smith "Village Growth and Decline 1930-40," *Rural Sociology*, IX, (June, 1944), 103-115.

² Dr. James Brown of the University of Kentucky reported in a personal letter that there were three such places in his state.

† Teachers College, Columbia University.

movement. The rural-urban classification in the 1950 Census will be based on density of population. The results of this new definition have not been announced at the time of this writing. To secure some idea of the trends all places in the size group under discussion in the counties contiguous to cities of half a million or more, probably lying within the commuting zone³ have been separately tabulated and reported on. No combined total of the two groups is given because of the impossibility of allowing for the first factor of non-com-

reason for this is to suggest in advance of the availability of the complete data some useful research or hypotheses for testing which changing trends seem to suggest may be important.

The first conclusion of this study is that medium and large villages have enjoyed a greater amount of growth than in any previous decade. Almost three out of four, 73 per cent, showed some growth. Almost one-half, 47.6 per cent, grew more than one per cent a year. Nationally the proportions follow:

	1940-50	1930-40	1910-30
Gaining 10% or more	47.6	43.9	38.7
Losing 10% or more	5.6	9.1	6.0
Neither gaining nor losing 10%	46.8	47.0	55.3

parability. It should be noted that the main tabulations presented will include, therefore, some suburbs around cities of less than the 250,000 and also that judgment entered into the placement of some communities. Hence until the full results of the 1950 Census are available, another researcher could get slightly different totals if his judgments on this point differed from the present writer's. The trend, however, is clear.

The major objective of this paper is to present trends with respect to the population behavior of the important group of communities considered rather than to achieve precise statistical comparability. The chief

In comparing 1940-50 with 1910-40, it must be remembered that the latter include suburban communities. If suburban communities eliminated in the 1940-50 tabulation had been added, the proportion of centers 1,000 to 2,500 in population which gained more than 10 per cent in the last census period would have been over 51 per cent and the other figures would have been reduced.

In the relatively stable group of villages which gained or lost population by less than one per cent a year in the decade, the number gaining significantly exceeded the number declining in the ratio of about 1.6 to one, as against 1.5 to one in the previous studies.

There were, however, significant differences among the various census divisions, as Table 1 makes clear.

³ The writer applied in part criteria for suburbs suggested by Professor Wilbur C. Hallenbeck in his *Urban Sociology* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951) (in press).

TABLE 1. PROPORTION OF NON-SUBURBAN VILLAGES 1000-2500 POPULATION GAINING OR LOSING, 1940-50 BY CENSUS DIVISIONS.

Division	No. of Villages	Gaining		Losing	
		Over 10%	0.1-9.9%	Over 10%	0.1-9.9%
Middle Atlantic	428	45.6	26.7	7.0	20.7
East No. Central	580	50.5	29.6	6.0	13.9
West No. Central	542	37.5	30.8	5.1	26.6
South Atlantic	417	57.1	29.7	3.1	10.1
East So. Central	238	62.2	16.0	6.1	15.5
West So. Central	364	56.3	22.8	5.5	15.4
Mountain	169	56.2	15.4	13.0	15.4
Pacific	144	75.8	13.8	3.4	7.0
United States*	2882	47.6	25.4	5.6	16.6

* Excludes nine places showing no change in population and suburban places as defined.

Only the Middle Atlantic and West North Central divisions showed less than one-half of their villages in the group growing more than 10 per cent in the last decade. The Pacific States showed the greatest growth, as would be expected from the large migration to this division, 1940-50. Almost half of the villages which lost more than 10 per cent were in two divisions—Middle Atlantic and Mountain. Most of their loss is to be accounted for by sharp declines in the population of mining towns, some of it by comparable losses in one-industry communities.⁴ These factors were also present, though less influential, in other divisions and played some part in the less drastic population losses of those centers which showed declines of less than one per cent a year.

A second conclusion is warranted from the data. The medium (1000-1749 population) village and the

large (1750-2499) are more important within the total rural-nonfarm population than previously. During the last decade 554 small villages outside of suburban areas as defined became medium or large villages. Ninety-four aggregations of population became incorporated and were listed for the first time in the Census in the size group 1000-2500. Two-thirds of these were in the Southern census region and over one-fourth in the Far West. In addition, close to a score of towns dropped into the village category. Thus, to compensate for the 382 non-suburban villages which passed into the urban category, as against 316 in 1930-40, including suburban, the medium and large village group received 664 accessions.

A third conclusion is that small villages have retained the dynamism with respect to population growth which has characterized them in the past, especially in the decade 1930-40. In those ten years 10 per cent of the 7224 small villages gained from 25 to 50 per cent and almost 4 per cent over 50 per cent in population,

⁴ The bases of this statement are the writer's personal acquaintance with some of the communities through his study of industrial villages in 1929 and otherwise, and letters from several rural sociologists who were asked to help explain the declines.

TABLE 2. NUMBER VILLAGES BECOMING URBAN; NUMBER SMALL VILLAGES BECOMING MEDIUM OR LARGE; AND RATES OF GAIN, 1940-50 BY CENSUS DIVISIONS.

Division	No. Villages to urban	No. Small to Medium or Large	Villages Gaining	
			Over 10%	0.1-9.9%
Middle Atlantic	49	54	83.4	16.6
East No. Central	58	116	85.5	14.5
West No. Central	29	72	83.3	16.7
South Atlantic	62	95	95.8	4.2
East So. Central	34	54	94.1	5.9
West So. Central	72	77	97.3	2.7
Mountain	25	36	97.1	2.9
Pacific	53	50	94.0	6.0
United States	382	554	91.3	8.7

including suburban places of less than 1000 in 1930. In the 1940-50 decade, excluding the suburban group as defined, of the 554 small villages which grew past the 1000 mark in population, over nine-tenths increased at the ratio of one per cent or more per year. The data with respect to these villages and those becoming urban are given in Table 2.

It will be noted that the three census divisions comprising the Northern region, as defined by the Census, lagged behind this average. The Southern and Western Census divisions exceeded it.

A fourth conclusion is that the obvious decline in farm population does not necessarily cause a decline in the village population. Indeed, often the farm and rural-nonfarm populations move in opposite directions. In North Dakota 42 out of 53 counties lost population, but only three villages lost population and none of these by as much as 10 per cent in the decade. In Missouri 80 of 117 counties lost population but gains out-numbered losses among the villages better than two to one, not including St. Louis County. Five-sixths of the losses were

nominal. Much the same story could be detailed for other states. In this connection it is significant that taking all counties having a population of less than 25,000, the intercensal gain was only two-tenths of one per cent. Only a few states moved against the trend. Iowa was the only state in which the number of villages growing less than 10 per cent in the decade exceeded the number growing over this percentage, though in Nebraska these two groups were almost equal. Kentucky lagged behind the other states in its census division and more than three-fourths of the places in this division which lost 10 per cent or more in the decade were in this state. Nonetheless, there was far more of growth than of decline.

In previous analyses of data from prior censuses a basis of comparison other than percentage change has been used, namely units of 100 persons. Thus, if a village of between 1000 and 1099 persons in one decade remained in that same position in the next census, it was placed in the zero category. If it had advanced to 1150 persons, it was placed in the +1 group, and so on, using minus signs

if a place lost population and fell into a lower category. This is a complicated and expensive analysis to present and since the results only confirm those already given only a summary appears. In 1940-50 more than seven villages in ten gained one or more 100's. In 1920-30 the proportion had been slightly more than one in two; in 1930-40, slightly over three in five. In the earlier decades 18 and 20 per cent, respectively, remained in the same 100; in 1940-50, about 15 per cent. Obviously the proportion declining one or more 100's in 1940-50 was small; about one village in seven as against more than one in six in 1930-40 and over one in four in 1920-30.

Moreover, more communities grew rapidly in 1940-50 than previously, well over one in five gaining 5 or more 100's, at against 13 per cent in 1930-40. Were the places classified as suburban added for the sake of strict comparability, the proportion moving up 5 or more 100's becomes more than double that of the previous census.

Are there any explanations of the growth of communities of this size? The writer put this question to a number of rural sociologists in the state colleges of agriculture and himself offered some possible explanations. The relative importance of the factors to be mentioned below cannot be determined until the complete results of the 1950 Census are available and until further research, almost certainly including field work, is done. The need for such research appears

evident, even from the meagre data thus far available.

Clearly one factor in village growth has been an increase in the number of services offered by the community. The full extent of this must await data from the 1950 Census of American Business. Some of these services are a result of increased mechanization of agriculture and the farm home. The vast expansion in rural electrification has resulted in an increase in the sale of electrical appliances and of service. But some of the increased services appear to be the result of the improved economic status of agriculture in the 1940's. The farmer was ready to buy more things and also a greater variety just as, despite the depression, the number of beauty parlors increased very sharply in the 1930's. The great increase in automobile travel after World War II also doubtless had some influence in the increase in services available.

There appears to have been a further growth in the number of federal and state employees living in these villages and extending the governmental service for which they were responsible. This factor began to operate in the 1930's.⁵ A majority of these officials settled in county seat towns and are partly responsible for the fact that these centers grew more rapidly than others. No nation-wide tabulation was made, but on the basis of selected states it appears safe to

⁵ David Jenkins, *Growth and Decline of Agricultural Villages* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1940), Chapter IV.

say that county seats with less than 2500 population in 1940 show a rate of gain in the 1940-50 decade close to twice that of the non-county seats.

During World War II many retirements from farming were delayed. There appears to have been an accelerated rate of retirement since the close of the conflict. In some sections at least appreciable proportions of retired farmers have moved to village centers they knew and where they could enjoy familiar services and associations. There has also been some retirement from cities to villages. This may be a return to a home town. It may result from ties formed during vacations. It will be interesting to watch the effect of this on the composition of the village population.

Several states reported small, new industries were locating in agricultural villages and that there was some decentralization of industry. This would also change the demographic picture in the communities affected and nationally would be likely to counteract the effect of increased retirements. Clearly, the increased number of births affecting all groups in the population had some influence. The periodic studies of the Census in the latter half of the 1940's showed a rise in the net reproductive index for the rural-nonfarm population.

It has been known for some time that wheat growers and some specialty farmers, especially in California, had given up open country residence, moved to their service-station village and were commuting to their land by auto. There were some scattered re-

ports from other areas that more farmers were doing this. It is safe to conclude that dairy and poultry men would not be included in this movement.*

In some respects attitudes toward rural-nonfarm living have completed a full circle in the last half century. No longer is the village a "hick town" offering little to those with ambition and wide interests. Instead, the improvement in education, the erection of modern school buildings, the pleasant surroundings, a fairly rich organizational life, lower taxes, more space, the chance for gardening, quiet and other advantages are attracting some families to rural villages far beyond the normal range of commuting. Radio and television compensate for the small degree of isolation from urban entertainment. The war-induced housing shortage doubtless forced some into this pattern of living but surprising proportions grew to prefer such a plan for existence. Fear of bombing was reported by one state as accelerating this movement. Professor Robert Polson reported on a community under intensive study by Cornell that more than one in seven of the gainfully employed living in the village work outside the community and one in six who live outside the village, but within the community area, also work outside it. A

* Another pattern of growth is quite evidently the resort village. Those purely such do not bulk large in the total number of places in the size group under discussion.

recent study by Connecticut⁷ indicates that this sort of thing is going on all over that state, even in its most rural areas. The general adoption of the five day week in many cities may have accelerated this. An increasing number of professional people, such as writers, advertising men, consulting engineers, commercial artists, do their creative work at home and commute to their city offices only two or three times a week. They are therefore willing to live considerably beyond the normal suburban zone.

True, sociologically, this particular development is but an extension or a new facet of suburbanization but the problems of social adjustment between newcomer and older resident are different.⁸ There can be no question that suburbs are of growing importance in American life. The 1950 Census lists 163 standard metropolitan districts. The central cities grew 13 per cent in 1940-50, the outlying areas 34.7 per cent. Within the quite conservative definition of suburb adopted for this study, of over 250 communities rural in size in 1940, 41.3 per cent grew 50 per cent or more in the decade; 21.8 per cent between 25 and 49.9 per cent; 16.8 per cent between 10 and 24.9 per cent. Only 3.6 per cent lost population; 6.5

per cent gained less than 10 per cent. Almost 30 per cent passed into the urban classification. There were many new incorporations.

Suburbanization does not, however, in statistical terms at least account for as much growth in rural-sized communities as is sometimes ascribed to it. Many suburban places in the areas so defined had reached the urban category by 1940. In a few cases there were no rural places left. In some places, as indicated above, the suburban development has jumped over rural-sized communities within the metropolitan district or the city county or counties and has gone quite some distance beyond. Here commuters comprise relatively small fractions of the population. There are also considerable differences in the behavior of places which were rural-sized suburbs in 1940. Some have achieved phenomenal growth, from several hundred to 1000 per cent; others close by have had only nominal growth. Real estate promotion and housing developments are probably the explanation for these cases.

With respect to suburbanization around cities of 50,000 to 250,000, the bare census records raise a few questions. Around a majority the movement is evidently in full swing and the gains registered by rural-sized communities in such areas are one explanation for the growth figures given in this article, although only one. On the other hand, there are quite a number of areas where the suburban movement has not yet caught on, or if it has, city people are

⁷ Walter C. McKain, Jr. and Nathan L. Whetten, "Occupational and Industrial Diversity in Rural Connecticut," Connecticut AESB 263 (Storrs, November, 1949).

⁸ Earl L. Koos and Edmund deS. Brunner, *Suburbanization in Webster, New York* (Rochester: University of Rochester, 1945). Also Norman Roth, *Suburban Community Organization—Inter-Group and Inter-Personal Relationships* (Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Columbia University, 1950).

moving into unincorporated territory or to places not yet having 1000 inhabitants and therefore not listed in the first preliminary census reports. Thus, there is vigorous suburban growth around Madison, Wisconsin. But the few rural-sized places over 1000 population in Omaha's county grew less than 20 per cent in the decade and Lancaster County, Nebraska, actually lost population outside its one city, Lincoln. In a number of cases the rate of growth of villages in the same or contiguous counties to cities of 50,000 to 150,000 population was not markedly out of line with the rates of growth elsewhere in the states. Around Shreveport, Louisiana and Duluth, Minnesota, such places actually declined.

The 1950 Census indicates clearly the growing importance of the rural-

nonfarm population, especially of the village of over 1000 population and the towns of 2500 to 5000 in agricultural areas. The farm population is no longer the larger half of the total rural group. Commercial farmers are even fewer and seem likely to decline in numbers even more, yet they are most important in sustaining the economic and social life of villages. How long can the farm population decline and villages grow? Will a considerably expanded commuting zone, possibly enlarged by air transport, enable small town America to grow still more? Or will 1960 see the peak of village and town development in the twentieth century as 1840 saw it in the New England and Middle Atlantic states in the nineteenth? Clearly the 1950 Census will present rural sociologists with a full measure of research possibilities.

Next Steps in Rural Sociological Research in the South*

By T. Lynn Smith†

ABSTRACT

The first part of this article sets forth five points that should be uppermost in mind in the formulation of plans and policies for the guidance of rural sociological research in the South. These are as follows: (1) the need for local self-direction in planning and conducting research; (2) greater continuity of projects to enable workers to dig more deeply into the problems on which they have started; (3) the development of a more adequate body of social theory; (4) the perfection of a more sharply critical scientific attitude; and (5) more attention to the importance of sociological studies of small areas. The second portion of the article discusses current trends in urbanization and the mechanization of agriculture, two basic trends now underway which promise social changes that will penetrate the utmost recesses of rural life and culture in the southern region.

The invitation to appear upon this program was a welcome one. It af-

forded an opportunity of discussing with a large group several of the handicaps under which rural sociological research sometimes has to labor, and of considering briefly what

* Prepared for presentation at the Annual Meetings of the Rural Sociological Society, New York City, December 28, 1949.

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may be the major opportunities in the field. Unfortunately, it is much easier to tell others what to do than to carry out ourselves the arduous, painstaking, time-consuming, complex, and frequently tedious processes involved in any genuine research. Perhaps this is the reason so many of us fail to measure up to the strict standards we ourselves impose. In any case I hope that I may be pardoned for devoting this discussion exclusively to two matters. The first of these is the enumeration and brief elaboration of five points which I consider of utmost significance for the orientation and conduct of rural sociological research in the South. The second is a short discussion of two basic trends now underway in the South whose ramifications extend into every recess of society, and with which I think we all will have to deal in one way or another in the course of the next decade.

I

The five points which the first part of this paper is concerned are as follows: (1) the need for local self-determination of projects and procedures; (2) the advisability of building upon established bases and utilizing the "know how" that has accumulated at a given institution, of moving gradually into related new fields and not jumping hurriedly from one project to something that is quite unrelated; (3) the desirability of re-dedicating our efforts to the task of developing a more adequate body of social theory; (4) the necessity of keeping uppermost a strong critical

attitude of evaluation towards all concepts, classifications, analytical techniques, tools for appraisal, and devices for presenting results of research; and (5) the great significance of careful and comprehensive sociological studies of small territorial units, particularly the counties, and the preparation of thorough but concise reports about them for the use of state and local agencies. Let us examine each of these briefly.

1. *The importance of local self-determination and self-direction.* Research worthy of the name is not mere mechanical routine. Above all, it is the systematic application of intensive, critical, discriminating, and judicious thinking on the part of an individual. It is the careful probing at a few selected places along the line between the known and the unknown by one who is thoroughly familiar, through a careful study of what has been done on the subject, with precisely where that line lies. The fruitful project is one in which insight into the situation and the complex of relationships involved, and knowledge of the nature and direction of the trends, combine to make the investigator highly sensitive to the few elements in the total situation which are of critical importance for diagnostic purposes.

If my assumptions are correct, worthwhile research is largely a personal matter. It cannot be done by one person for another. Counsel and advice that are sought for, as when one worker goes to another for aid in laying out a project or for assistance

in disentangling a web of relationships, are very helpful. Not so unasked and unwanted guidance. The latter, especially if it is imposed by a committee from within or without the institution, may actually lead a man to cease the hard struggle of coping with the perplexities of research work and to settle down to the comfortable existence of merely going through the motions in the most accepted style. One must not assume that a person is actively engaged in research merely because he is devoting day after day to the preparation of schedules and questionnaires, or because he exhibits an elaborate concern with sampling and tests of significance. The same goes for his readiness to spend a great amount of time working on this or that committee, and attending research conferences. I have known persons to spend month after month in the endless tabulation and retabulation of data (as though it were possible to capture and confine infinity!) long after they had abandoned all real hopes of overcoming difficulties inherent in the project. In short, too much interference with individual initiative may cause the worker to do everything except the essence of research—formulating significant hypotheses and putting them to empirical tests.

2. *Build upon established bases.* I wish to urge strongly that the rural sociologists in the southern region continue to build upon the established bases, utilizing the fund of knowledge that has been accumulating in the various centers, and adding to it

through strenuous efforts to probe more deeply along the lines that have yielded returns in the past. For example, I think it would be a crying shame for the men at North Carolina suddenly to cease work on regional problems and to switch to some remotely related part of our discipline; for the men at Kentucky to abandon work on community and neighborhood organization in favor of some field that looked greener at the moment; for the workers at North Carolina State to give up their pioneering efforts in the discovery and testing of more simple and less expensive indicators of rural levels and standards of living; or for our colleagues at Louisiana State to conclude that studies of rural demography constituted a worked-out mine that should be abandoned for fresher diggings.

It requires years of striving and the cumulative efforts of many men to arrive at the point where highly significant studies of immediate practical application are possible. I feel that there is too great a tendency, sometimes as a result of outside pressures or unfounded remarks made in the presence of an experiment station director, for rural sociologists to shift or be shifted from one field of investigation to another. All too often this merely means that the men never actually work in one field long enough and intensively enough to learn the "score" in the area in which they are doing research, or, to change the figure of speech, they never work at one thing long enough to get up to the "line of scrimmage."

Part of the trouble here may grow out of the commendable idea that a station should have a "well-rounded" program of rural sociological research. Most of us would favor the development of such a well-balanced set of research activities providing sufficient personnel and support are provided so that thoroughgoing study of all the facets of our subject can be undertaken. What is not to be encouraged, however, is the attempt to spread the efforts of a man or two, usually only part-time researchers at that, over a wide variety of projects in all branches of rural sociology.

These remarks should not be interpreted to mean that men should merely work on the same old thing year after year, but rather that one study should set the stage for another in a logical and evolutionary manner as a natural growth. In this connection I am sure that our experience in Louisiana has been paralleled at several other centers. The Louisiana population studies began with one dealing with the growth of population. At that time it was not recognized in Louisiana or elsewhere that this was merely the beginning of what the rural sociologist could do with the mountains of population data that have been accumulating in this country for a century and a half. It was planned to bring together the data in an orderly manner more for the purposes of general background than for any other. With the experience gained in that undertaking it was possible to dig out and test a wealth of material dealing with the composition

and characteristics of the population. These facts and relationships, in turn, were seized upon and utilized by many federal agencies working in the state, by several arms of state government, and by numerous private individuals and firms as well.

By this time we had come fully to recognize that in spite of all the relating that had been done by sociologists and economists, there are only three factors bearing directly upon the number of people and their distribution, namely the birth rate, the death rate, and migration. Accordingly new projects were devised to bring these three into the analyses and work was begun on a program that might very well occupy a large staff for many years. Although only a small fraction of the time of one professor was available for the work, the endeavors were so integrated with a graduate training program that it was possible to make significant headway. Part of the migration topic was developed into a doctoral dissertation by a graduate assistant; differential fertility was studied by another; and a third phase, mortality, was oriented with respect to health and resulted in what was generally considered as one of the most practical studies ever done at the Louisiana Station in the social science field. Finally all of these studies contributed heavily to the highly significant study by Hitt and Bertrand, *Social Aspects of Hospital Planning in Louisiana*, and through it to the formulation and guidance of the state's hospitalization program. Furthermore, the experience and

"know how" accumulated through the years (of which the department is the repository) made it easy and logical for the personnel to expand their activities into the areas of dental health, standards of living, and the social aspects of the mechanization of agriculture. But the demographic studies themselves are not being neglected, and we may expect a continuous stream of significant findings to flow from the Louisiana Station in the years immediately ahead.

3. *Aid in the development of genuine sociological theory.* Because of the way in which their work is organized and supported, rural sociologists working in the South perforce must be preoccupied with concrete, empirical studies, many of them largely of a service nature. However, this does not free us of the responsibility of contributing to the development of a genuine body of tested and systematized sociological knowledge, nor does it justify us in accepting and passing on as "social theory" the hazy stuffs which emanate from the arm chairs. Constantly we need to remind ourselves that a theory in sociology, a scientific sociological theory, as in any other science is a general proposition that has been put to the most exacting empirical tests and found to be in accord with all observed facts and previously tested propositions. Any real social theory, like the one in physics or geology, has a humble beginning and a long, turbulent history. It starts as a mere intuitive flash or hunch in the mind that has been grappling with certain empirical observations

and has suddenly leaped forward inductively to a general proposition that may be true. But even after phrasing, though it be by a scientific genius, the preliminary guess, the hunch, or the incipient hypothesis still has a long, rocky road to travel. Before it is entitled to be designated as an hypothesis it must be submitted to considerable testing. The amount of system used in the testing process, the extent to which the really critical cases can be brought to bear upon the validity of the generalization indicates the quality of the researcher. Naturally the overwhelming majority of all the preliminary guesses fail to meet even the most elementary tests and must be discarded. However, now and then "look and see" procedures will reveal that a significant proposition squares with all that should follow if it were valid, and it will also harmonize with previously established knowledge. Then and only then the proposition is entitled to be called an hypothesis; then sociologists have another working basis upon which to proceed; then they have another tentative generalization to put to the most searching tests that can be devised.

In the course of time if the new hypothesis proves useful, if it adds to real perspective and insight, and if in every instance it stands up under the repeated tests devised by other scientists, all reasonable doubt as to its accuracy and validity are removed. The few select hypotheses which can run this gamut, and only those, are entitled to the designation of theories.

If we ever have a body of social theory worthy of the name, and not a mere history of social ideas or a set of social philosophies, the rural sociologists in the South and elsewhere must take seriously their responsibilities as sociologists. If it does not result from the empirical work they and some of their colleagues in other fields are doing, there is small hope for a true science of human relationships.

4. *Maintain a constant critical appraisal of concepts, classification, techniques, and devices employed in analysis and presentation of results.* This point is so evident that it needs little elaboration. Over the years, however, care with respect to these details can result in a net contribution to knowledge that will be astonishing to the one who takes stock of such developments. It is to be emphasized that most of these are merely "by-products." I know of nothing that would promise to be so sterile as research upon methodology or concepts per se.

5. *The great significance of sociological studies of small areas.* Rural sociology got its start in this country from the pioneering efforts of Galpin and others in the study of small local areas, counties and communities. But the fructifying results of comprehensive studies of small territorial units are likely to be fully as great in the next decade as they have been in any comparable period that has passed. In this way only do we get the grassroots contacts and observations that we must have in order actually to know social phenomena. Only in the local

area can we identify and describe the thousands of social forms and processes which are for sociology what the species are for biology. Only at the local level are we likely to obtain the most practical and effective application of sociological techniques and findings. I know of few things that would be more useful at the moment than a series of carefully prepared and concisely worded monographs upon individual counties. I shall not take up your time by cataloguing all the items that should be included in such monographic studies. Suffice it to say that I think the study should be a complete one, made according to some one particular outline or frame of reference which purports to include the whole of social organization and the entire range of the social processes. In any that I personally attempt, of course, demography, the relations of people to the land, the locality group structure, the principal social institutions, and standards of living will figure prominently.

II

The two trends or processes now moving along at a dizzy pace in the South and with which I think all of us will have to come to grips in the course of the next decade are: (1) the urbanization of the region; and (2) the mechanization of agriculture.

The Urbanization of the Region

Although the process of urbanization in the South has lagged by about 50 years in comparison with that in the nation as a whole, the number and percentage of the region's population

living in urban centers are now mounting at a rapid pace. Between 1900 and 1940 the number of urban inhabitants in the Southern Region (the South Atlantic, East South Central, and West South Central States) increased from 4,420,885 to 16,343,914 and the proportion of the population living in urban centers from 18.0 per cent to 36.7 per cent. When the returns are in from the count to be made during the next few months, it is likely that the number will have mounted to 20,000,000 and the percentage to about 43. And this is not the end. There are still no signs that the process has run itself out, that the progressive urbanization of the region may not continue for several decades to come.

All of us, every sociologist interested in rural life and working in the South, might well ask the following question: What does the emergence and continued growth of important urban centers throughout the length and breadth of our Southland signify for the organization and functioning of rural society in the area? This is a question that I shall not attempt to answer in full at the moment, but it is one to which I expect we shall all devote a great deal of time and effort in the course of the next decade. I venture to suggest, however, that this process of urbanization will provide the moving force necessary to keep underway and even to intensify a number of important trends already underway in the Southern region. Let us call the roll of a few of these: (1) The manner in which our farm popu-

lation is arranged on the land, and hence the structural framework of many of our neighborhoods and communities, is likely to undergo fundamental modifications. The pattern of settlement which I have designated as the line village probably will become the dominant one in the heavily populated zones surrounding the major cities, and it is certain to take on much more importance along all of the trunk highways which connect one important center of commerce and transportation with another. (2) The nature of the social cohesion or solidarity of the average rural neighborhood or community in the South is almost sure to undergo additional fundamental change. One should be entirely safe in taking as a working hypothesis the proposition that Durkheim's *mechanistic* social solidarity will lose its dominant position in our rural groups in favor of the type of cohesion based on the division of social labor and specialization, that is *organic* solidarity. (3) The change in the basic ties uniting the social groupings in the South will, in turn, bring about so many alterations in the familistic nature of our rural society that those of us with an interest in social psychology should not lack for the raw materials of study for many a day. It seems to me that the changes in kinship ties and family obligations are especially significant features to check upon. The time may not be too far in the future when familism may lose strength to such a degree that the successful southern politician may hold office without the necessity of

practicing nepotism. (4) The locality groupings of the Southland seem destined to undergo basic rearrangements in the near future. Only in a few of the more remote and isolated sections, those far removed from the main arteries of communication and transportation, is the old neighborhood stage of social organization likely to persist. Elsewhere the community stage of rural organization, and even a new type of community worthy of the designation of urban is likely to become the dominant type. As centers actually deserving to be called cities make their appearance in all parts of the region, the small town of a few thousand inhabitants will no longer function feebly as the "metropolis" to which the large rural population within a radius of from 20 to 40 miles must look for all the specialized goods and services which the 20th century civilization affords. In the near future very few farm families in the South will be deprived of ready access to the most modern and ramified mercantile establishments, diversified commercial recreational facilities, high-quality cultural and educational activities, competent service agencies, and well developed and highly specialized medical and hospital services. The way in which this will affect and bring about a rearrangement of community and neighborhood relationships and loyalties throughout the entire scale from the metropolitan center to the remote farmstead will be one of the very interesting items

we shall have for observation and reflection during the next decade.

Likewise, in all the other branches of our subject, in group relationships of all types, in the realm of class and caste, in each of the major social institutions, and in all the social processes, the present intensification in urbanization seems certain to bring about the most fundamental changes. It is a matter that we cannot afford to ignore. Fortunately, the sociologist who has specialized in rural affairs is not entirely unprepared for the task, since in our fraternity it has been the rule rather than the exception for the comparative method to be utilized and for rural traits and processes to be studied in their contrast with the urban.

Mechanization of Agriculture

This is the second of the powerful sets of moving forces now actively at work in the region and whose revolutionary effects should provide all of us with a rich variety of raw materials for study in the course of the next decade. In discussing this matter I shall merely set forth a few of the results that, as I see it, are to be anticipated. The specific things I shall mention are only a few of the possible trends and developments stemming from this particular factor which we should observe, test, and analyze in the years immediately ahead.

1. The most immediate effect of the mechanization of southern farms and plantations should be the elimination of the large unskilled, servile, impoverished class of farm laborers and

its replacement with a small, highly skilled, and well-paid set of workmen. This alone in all its social and economic ramifications, the bearing it should have on the average levels of living, class and caste structure, patterns of domination and subordination, educational status, and migration, to mention only a few of the many features that should be affected, should bring about profound changes in the way of life characterizing our Southland.

2. As manual labor comes to be done in different ways as part of a machine complex, a great deal of the stigma that has been attached to the performance of essential farm tasks should be removed. The operation of mechanized farm equipment was never the work of slaves.

3. Because it should add many new skills and responsibilities to the accoutrements of the average rural southerner, and especially because it should bring a much larger proportion of them to perform all three of the basic economic functions—those of the capitalist, the manager, and the laborer—mechanization of agriculture should have a profound effect upon the prevailing personality types. Out of it all we can expect a higher proportion of well-rounded personalities, a substantial improvement in the quality of the common man.

4. In a very different part of the social scene, the mechanization of agriculture in the South is likely to

increase greatly the division of labor between country and city in the region. This because it should hasten greatly the process of transferring from the rural districts to the urban centers the residences of the bulk of the persons who find seasonal employment in agriculture. I believe that California already has rather highly developed the pattern which is likely to become more generalized in the South. Under such an arrangement, with the families of the unskilled and semi-skilled workers who assist on the farms during harvest living in the populated centers, such laborers are likely to be employed more productively for a greater part of the year. However, the problems of relief in towns and cities are likely to be greatly multiplied.

5. The last thing I shall mention in this attempt to enumerate a few of the significant items for study that we shall have as a result of the developing mechanization of agriculture in the South, is the probable weakening and decline of the paternalism which has been so prevalent in the region. If my assumptions are correct, during the next decade we should have abundant opportunity to observe a society which is passing rapidly from a stage of social organization characterized by paternalistic, familistic relationships into one in which more equalitarian, individualistic, and atomized relationships are the order of the day.

Social Participation of Individuals in Four Rural Communities of the Northeast*

By Donald G. Hay†

ABSTRACT

A comparative analysis was made of the social participation of individuals in four rural communities of the Northeast. A participation scale involving both formal and informal organizations was used.

This scale previously developed to measure participation of households, with the minor changes of dropping family visiting and trips to village items, showed high validity as an instrument for ascertaining the extent of social participation of individuals.

The communities were generally similar in distribution of individuals by participation scores; in the direction and degree of differences in participation by family status and by age groups; and in the consistency and degree of relationship of participation with socioeconomic status and occupation-residence. Variations in participation among the four communities appeared to be due largely to manifest situational differences.

To what extent do individuals vary in their social participation? What are some of the factors that are closely related to individual participation? Information concerning these questions is desirable in any work toward developing further sharing in group life. During 1947 some pertinent data were obtained from comparative analyses of rural organizations in three towns in Maine¹ and one community in central New York.²

Although social participation of households³ has been examined more

often than that for individuals, it is significant to probe the sharing of individuals in group activities. Meaningful ties of a person to his cultural milieu are via group life. The significance of socialization has been stated by Murdock:

The conclusion is therefore inescapable that in man—alone among the social animals—society itself is largely learned, i.e., is the product of cultural rather than of biological evolution . . . it follows that man must be molded to his society much as a colt is broken to harness. He must, in short, be "Socialized."⁴

The rise of specialized organizations in rural localities makes participation increasingly an interaction between individuals and formal and informal groups. Instead of the entire family taking part as a unit in community life, there is considerable splintering as household members

* Statistical computations for this report were made by John Cameron Hay.

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¹ D. G. Hay, D. Ensminger, S. R. Miller, and E. J. Lebrun, *Rural Organizations in Three Maine Towns*, Maine AESB 391 (Orono, June, 1949).

² Information obtained as a sub-project of a cooperative study by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, and Cornell University of rural organizations in Oneida County, study in progress.

³ For an analysis of participation of households in these same four communities, see D. G. Hay, "The Social Participation of Households in Selected Rural Communities of the Northeast," *Rural Sociology*, XV (June, 1950), 141-148.

⁴ Geo. P. Murdock, "The Science of Human Learning, Society, Culture and Personality," *Scientific Monthly*, LXIX (December, 1949), 378.

often take part in different organizations.

The four communities studied represent a dominant characteristic of rural localities in northeastern United States—a combination of farm and nonfarm families. All of the families included in the study lived in the open country. The three Maine towns were Addison, Easton, and Turner. Addison is a seacoast community in "down East" Maine, about 50 miles from New Brunswick. Lobster fishing and blueberry farming are principal occupations. Easton Town is in the highly specialized potato farming area of Maine—Aroostook County. The town of Turner is a dairy and general farming community in south central Maine. Residents of both Easton and Turner are influenced by proximity to cities—several Easton people take part in groups headquartering in Presque Isle and Ft. Fairfield and several "rural residents" who live in Turner are employed in Auburn and Lewistown. Holland Patent community is located just north of Utica in the central dairy belt of New York. Most of the families there are dairy farmers but several "rural residents" are employed in Utica and Rome.

Nature and Validity of Social Participation Scale

Social participation of individuals 10 years of age and over was taken to include their sharing in formal organizations, (i.e., groups having officers and regular meetings), and in the following informal group activities:

athletic events, community entertainments, dances, fairs, movies, card games, group parties, picnics, group suppers, and hunting and fishing groups.

The extent of participation was examined primarily by the participation scores of individuals based on a scale previously set up and partially standardized for rural households.⁵ The Chapin Social Participation Scale was used for the formal organization portion of the scale. It will be recalled that this scale is based on a score of 1 for membership, 2 for attendance, 3 for contributions, 4 for committee membership, and 5 for holding office. The bases for participation in the indicated informal groups were: (1) attending informal group activities and (2) taking active part, such as dancing, etc., in informal group activities. Attending informal groups is scored as one and taking a more active part as two. Family visiting and trips to villages were dropped from the scale for determining extent of individual participation as these are usually activities of the family unit.

The scale for measuring participation in formal and informal groups has been partially standardized for households, but at that time, it had not been tested for validity and reliability in measuring participation of individuals. Validity tests were made of the individual participation scale as follows: (1) relation with identi-

⁵ D. G. Hay, "A Scale for the Measurement of Social Participation of Rural Households," *Rural Sociology*, XIII (September, 1948), 285-294.

fiable behavior and (2) relation with another scale which has demonstrated ability to measure the phenomenon for which the present scale is set up.

Identifiable behavior in terms of number of different group affiliations per individual was used. Coefficients of correlation between participation scores of individuals and their number of group affiliations were $+.89$, $+.95$, $+.87$, and $+.76$, respectively, for the towns of Addison, Easton and Turner and for Holland Patent community.

The participation scores of individuals in formal and in informal groups were correlated with their scores on the Chapin Social Participation Scale with correlation coefficients of $+.98$, $+.96$, $+.77$, and $+.98$, respectively, for the four communities.

These tests of the validity of the scale indicated high ability in measuring what it purports to measure: social participation of individuals.

Satisfactory means for testing the reliability (i.e., consistency of results) of the scale were not available.

Extent of Participation of Individuals

Seventy-one per cent of all individuals 10 years old and over in Addison, 73 per cent in Turner, 85 per cent in Easton, and 88 per cent in Holland Patent participated in one or more formal organizations. A higher proportion, ranging from 83 per cent in Addison to 96 per cent in Easton, either attended or took a more active part in informal group activities. As might be expected, the highest proportion participated in rural organizations (including both formal and

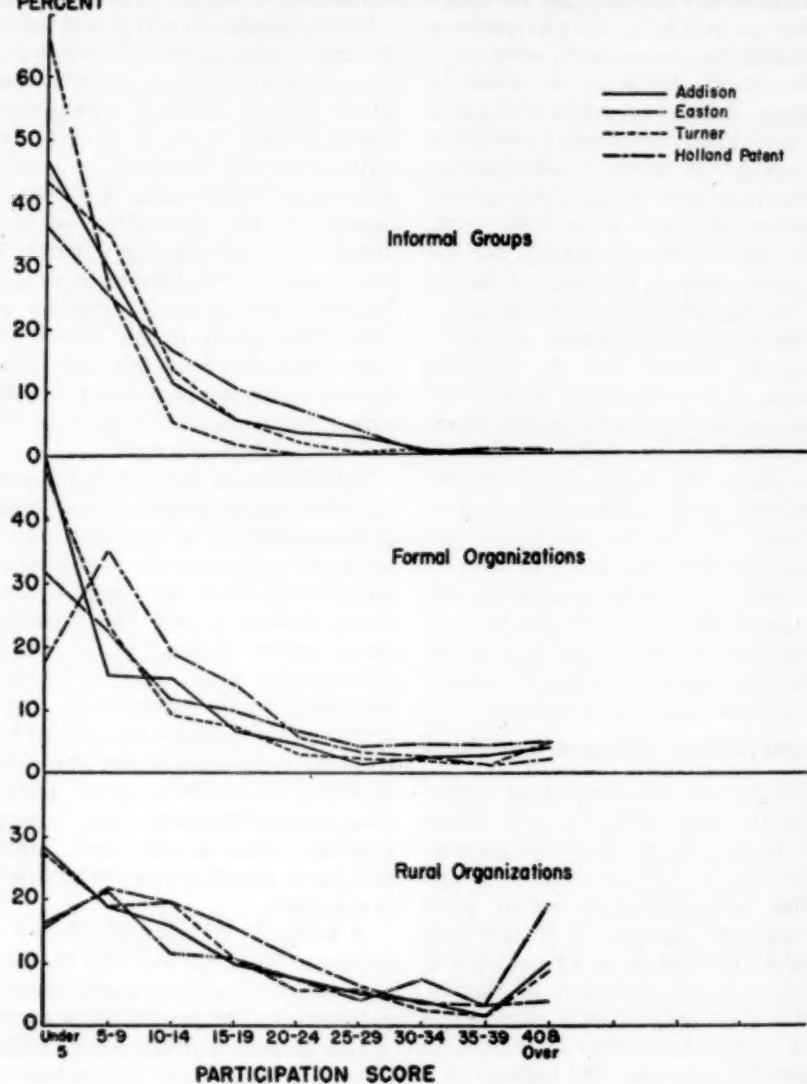
informal) ranging from 86 per cent in Addison to 97 per cent in Easton.

Marked similarity was found among the four communities in the distribution of individuals by participation scores, Figure 1. Rural organization scores ranged from 0 to 121—the distribution was generally a J-curve with modes either under 5 or from 5 through 9. The distribution of individuals by participation scores in formal and informal groups were both J-curves with a quick dropping off after early peaks in low scores and with a tendency for a few individuals to have high scores. Formal organization scores ranged from 0 to 105 and informal from 0 to 42.

Individuals in each of these communities may be placed in four broad groups according to their distribution by rural organization participation scores: (1) "very low" participants, scores of 0 to 4; (2) "low" participants, scores of 5 to 9; (3) "high" participants, scores of 10 to 24; and (4) "very high" participants, scores of 25 and over. About one-fifth of the individuals in each of the four communities were "very low" participants; one-fifth were "low"; about one-third were in the "high" group and about one-fifth were "very high" participants.

A tentative hypothesis relative to extent of participation was that extent of participation of individuals, as measured by the participation scores, varies more than incidence of affiliation as indicated by percentage of individuals taking any part in the organizations. At least in these four

DISTRIBUTION OF INDIVIDUALS BY PARTICIPATION SCORES, 1947



communities, individuals showed greater variance in their participation scores than in percentage taking some part in organizations. This carries a practical challenge to rural communities that try to increase social participation. A high proportion of individuals share in some group activities but the problem remains of increasing the extent of group activity of the low participants.

The data for the four communities support the premise that there is a hierarchical ranking of types of organizations in extent of participation. Church participation scores constituted from one-third to one-half of the average formal organization score per individual. Next to the church, farmers' general organizations (large-ly Grange), Extension Service or-

ganizations, civic-patriotic groups, farmers' cooperatives, and fraternal organizations were highest in participation scores. The scores in youth and recreational organizations were lowest with the participants concentrated in certain age groups.

Among the informal group activities, group suppers, movies, fairs, picnics, and community entertainments led in extent of participation per person.

Participation scores of individuals 10 years of age and over varied considerably according to family status, Table 1. Male heads and homemakers consistently outscored sons and daughters in all rural organizations; in formal organizations; and in informal groups except in Holland Patent. Other than in the town of Addi-

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF INDIVIDUALS 10 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER BY FAMILY STATUS AND THEIR AVERAGE PARTICIPATION SCORES, FOUR RURAL COMMUNITIES OF THE NORTHEAST, 1947.

Communities	Male Heads	Homemakers	Sons	Daughters
<i>Number of Individuals</i>				
Addison Town, Maine	91	98	41	27
Easton Town, Maine	80	79	52	56
Turner Town, Maine	97	102	55	33
Holland Patent, New York	128	135	99	87
<i>Average Participation Scores</i>				
ALL RURAL ORGANIZATIONS				
Addison Town, Maine	17.6	21.2	10.3	13.0
Easton Town, Maine	28.7	23.1	18.8	15.3
Turner Town, Maine	19.7	17.7	11.1	9.5
Holland Patent, New York	18.1	16.4	13.8	13.6
FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS				
Addison Town, Maine	9.2	13.5	4.5	6.6
Easton Town, Maine	17.3	11.6	9.6	8.0
Turner Town, Maine	12.5	11.2	4.6	3.7
Holland Patent, New York	15.0	12.4	9.4	8.6
INFORMAL GROUPS				
Addison Town, Maine	8.3	7.7	5.8	6.4
Easton Town, Maine	11.2	9.1	9.1	7.3
Turner Town, Maine	7.3	6.4	6.5	5.8
Holland Patent, New York	3.6	3.5	4.4	4.9

son, male heads consistently outscored homemakers, and sons generally scored higher than daughters. A corollary of the above is that men and boys outscored women and girls in three of the four localities. In a study of informal participation of farm families in New York State, W. W. Reeder found that husbands take part in more different informal activities than wives but not quite so frequently.⁶ In the seacoast town of Addison, women and girls carry a decidedly greater share of the participation in formal organizations than do the men.

All of these differences were relatively more pronounced in the three Maine towns than in the New York community. The latter had a higher incidence of urban influence. Of these rural localities, then, the more urbanized one had greater uniformity of participation of male heads, homemakers, and sons and daughters. This suggests the implication that the more highly rural localities tend to be more adult and male-slanted toward high participation compared with an urbanized rural community.

Differences were found in average participation scores of individuals by family status in the four localities, but similarities were more pronounced than the differences. Easton, rather consistently, had the highest scores. In all four localities, a higher percentage of male heads and home-

makers than of sons and daughters participated in formal organizations while the situation was mixed by localities for proportions taking some part in informal groups.

Incidence and extent of participation were also examined by age of individuals. Analysis by detailed age classes indicated four age groups having distinctive participation patterns for both males and females. These were 10-18 years, 19-34, 35-54, and 55 years and over.⁷

Young people 10-18 years of age were relatively high among the four age groups in incidence of participation but were lowest in average formal organization scores. Their high incidence of sharing in both formal and informal groups probably derives from the strong sociability interests of this age period. The 19-34 age groups generally showed an increase in extent of participation (scores) as compared to the 10-18 year olds. They had the highest informal activity scores of any age group. Individuals 35-54 years were consistently and to a marked degree highest in rural organization scores. Persons 55 and over had a decrease in participation scores, except in the formal organizations for men in Turner. It is in line with anticipated roles of older people that the most urbanized community (Holland Patent) had the sharpest

⁶ Wm. W. Reeder, *Some Aspects of the Informal Social Participation of Farm Families in New York State*; Ph.D. Thesis, Cornell University, June, 1947.

⁷ Selz C. Mayo found a concomitant relationship of age and participation of rural people in formal organizations in a study in Wake County, North Carolina. See Selz C. Mayo, "Age Profiles of Social Participation in Rural Areas of Wake County, North Carolina," *Rural Sociology*, XV (September, 1950), 242-251.

decline in formal organization scores of individuals over 54 years.

Analysis of the participation of all individuals in the four communities by age groups in types of formal organizations indicates the relative extent of participation in each type by age and also portrays sequentially how participation changes with age. Church organizations enjoyed the highest participation scores in every age group. The marked agreement of average participation scores of the group from 35 through 44 in all types of formal organizations except church indicates a similarity of interest and activity in all these organizations. Greater variance is found in participation for the next two age groups with a general decrease of participation in all types of formal organizations for persons 65 years and over.

Factors Associated with Participation of Individuals

Among the factors that have evidenced a relation to participation of households, socioeconomic status and occupational-residential status were examined in this analysis of individual participation.

A consistent relation was indicated between the socioeconomic status score of households and the average participation scores of male head, homemaker, sons, and daughters, Table 2. Individuals in the lower status households always had the lowest average participation scores, while those in the upper status households had higher participation. The relationship was statistically "highly

significant" for male heads and homemakers in each of the communities, and "highly significant" for sons except in Turner where it was "significant." It was "highly significant" for daughters in Easton and Holland Patent, "significant" in Addison, and did not show any significant relation in Turner.

Households were also classified as to the occupational-residential status of the male head. Except in the town of Addison, the pattern of relationships was consistent with individuals from full-time farms having higher participation scores than those from part-time farm and "rural resident" households. The relationships were statistically "highly significant" for male heads except in Addison, and "highly significant" for homemakers in Turner. Addison was unique among the four communities in having part-time farmers and "rural residents," mostly fishermen, as the predominant occupational-residential group. Individuals in households where the male head was either retired or was a hired farm laborer were not included in this analysis because of their small numbers—however, they regularly had lower participation than either of the other two groups.

It may be important that there is a consistency of influence of socioeconomic status and occupational-residential status of the families upon participation scores of sons and daughters as well as upon such scores of the parents. The role of family characteristics in the participation of

TABLE 2. AVERAGE PARTICIPATION SCORES OF INDIVIDUALS IN RURAL ORGANIZATIONS BY CHARACTERISTICS OF HOUSEHOLDS, FOUR RURAL COMMUNITIES OF THE NORTHEAST, 1947.

Characteristics of Households	Average Participation Score			
	Male Heads	Homemakers	Sons	Daughters
Socioeconomic Status Score^a				
Addison Town, Maine				
Under 75 score	12.3	15.2	6.1	8.8
75 and over	25.6	29.8	23.2	35.4
Difference in scores	+13.3 ^d	+14.6 ^d	+17.1 ^d	+26.6 ^d
Value of t ^e	4.0	3.4	3.9	2.3
Easton Town, Maine				
Under 75 score	14.4	10.0	5.4	3.3
75 and over	27.4	27.0	23.2	18.6
Difference in scores	+13.0 ^d	+17.0 ^d	+17.8 ^d	+15.3 ^d
Value of t	3.6	5.9	5.9	6.4
Turner Town, Maine				
Under 75 score	8.8	8.5	7.5	7.1
75 and over	28.3	25.2	13.1	11.6
Differences in scores	+19.5 ^d	+16.7 ^d	+5.6 ^d	+4.5 ^d
Value of t	5.6	5.8	2.4	1.1
Holland Patent, New York				
Under 75 score	9.3	8.3	9.8	10.4
75 and over	23.6	20.1	14.2	15.3
Difference in scores	+14.3 ^d	+11.8 ^d	+4.4 ^d	+4.9 ^d
Value of t	7.2	6.3	2.6	2.9
Occupation-Residence Status				
Addison Town, Maine				
Full-time farmer	18.0	18.7	.	.
Part-time farmer and rural resident	18.3	23.4	11.8	14.0
Difference in scores	+0.3 ^f	+4.7 ^f	—	—
Value of t	0.1	1.0	—	—
Easton Town, Maine				
Full-time farmer	33.4	25.0	20.3	17.3
Part-time farmer and rural resident	19.6	19.2	.	.
Difference in scores	-13.8 ^d	-5.8 ^f	—	—
Value of t	3.1	1.3	—	—
Turner Town, Maine				
Full-time farmer	27.2	23.0	13.4	11.1
Part-time farmer and rural resident	8.7	10.4	6.8	7.7
Difference in scores	-18.5 ^d	-12.6 ^d	-6.6 ^d	-3.4 ^f
Value of t	4.2	3.5	2.5	0.8
Holland Patent, New York				
Full-time farmer	21.8	17.4	14.7	14.4
Part-time farmer and rural resident	12.5	14.8	12.4	12.6
Difference in scores	-9.3 ^d	-2.6 ^f	-2.3 ^f	-1.8 ^f
Value of t	4.4	1.0	1.0	1.1

^a Insufficient cases for analysis.^b Based on Sewell's short socioeconomic status scale.W. H. Sewell, "A Short Form of the Farm Family Socioeconomic Status Scale," *Rural Sociology*, VIII (June, 1943), 161-170.^c Value of t is the ratio of difference between the means (scores) to the standard error of the difference.^d Highly significant—differences at the one per cent level.^e Significant—differences at the five per cent level.^f Not significant—differences which did not show at the five per cent level.

all members is evidenced in the relation of these two factors to the participation scores of youth and adults. Community leaders and others who want to develop greater participation of young people need to devote effort to increasing group interaction of youth in low socioeconomic status and/or "rural resident" families.

An interesting aspect of individual participation indicated in this analysis is that of sex differences. Males were usually higher in participation scores in full-time farm households while females were higher in the part-time farm and "rural resident" homes. The latter are the more urban oriented as the nonfarm occupational ties of these households are usually in a city.

Discussion

Lee Coleman

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Social participation has been a popular subject among sociologists in recent years. Dr. Hay's paper adds to a gradually accumulating body of knowledge and fills in some of the gaps. As such it is a useful piece of work.

But what impresses me most about this paper and other recent research on social participation is that most of the studies going under the label are segmental, and that relatively little has been done to bring together the existing knowledge and fit it into a larger framework.¹ I do not necessarily mean to suggest that this should have been Dr. Hay's task, but it does seem to

me a job that needs doing now—and perhaps one that will have to be done before additional research on the measurement of participation can be very profitable. I make this suggestion partly because we seem to have enough data for more generalization than has been done, and partly because a broader conceptualization of the problem would better enable us to see what directions to take in further research.

Social participation is a concept which seems to cut across a number of other sociological concepts, and part of the task is the further definition of the concept and fitting it into a larger schema. An examination of several recent textbooks in rural sociology indicates that social participation, by that name, does not get major attention, though most—but not all—of the texts list it in the index.

The term social participation is much used, but actually it seems to me one of the haziest of our concepts. As used by some it seems practically the equivalent of the term social interaction, but if the concept is to be this inclusive there seems little need for the term social participation at all. Hay doesn't go quite this far in what he includes in his index, but even so I find myself questioning, on purely logical grounds, whether belonging to the Farm Bureau and attending the movies are kinds of behavior sufficiently alike to go under the same name, social participation. In the specific case of the movie attendance, I think there is considerable evidence to suggest that this may often be a way of *avoiding* social participation, in one possible sense of the term.

I would also like to see further consideration given to the question of how much participation is socially desirable—though perhaps this is not wholly the task of the sociologist, at least it involves the much-argued question of whether the sociologist should make value judgments. I wonder if we are completely realistic when we assume—as I think we frequently do—that social participation is a good, *per se*, and the more participation the better. Speaking

¹ Perhaps the nearest approach is W. A. Anderson's bulletin entitled *Some Participation Principles* (Cornell Extension Bulletin No. 731, September 1947), but this is oriented toward practical application in the Extension program, and does not attempt to organize the data in terms of broader theory.

particularly of formal participation, it would of course be very convenient, for one with a program to put over, if all of the people could be reached through several organizational channels. But the same people who talk of "increasing social participation" can be heard to complain that they themselves participate too much or have too many demands on their time and loyalties.

Turning now to the specific paper we have for discussion, it seems to me that perhaps the most useful information which it provides is further documentation of rural-urban differences, or the changes involved in the urbanization process. It also supports previous findings on the relation of socioeconomic status and participation, and age and participation. These are by now pretty well-established relationships. It focuses attention on the so-called "rural resident" as one of the least-participating types in American society, as measured by our present devices.

This is one of the few studies in which the participation of all family members (10 years of age and over) has been investigated. I was asked to discuss only the present paper, but by way of background I re-read Dr. Hay's two earlier articles on social participation which have appeared in *Rural Sociology*,³ one on the construction of his participation scale and one on the participation of households. My conclusion was that, for purposes of presentation and discussion at this meeting, it would have been better if he had combined his papers on households and individuals—though for publication there is probably no objection to making two articles. In a single paper the differences between individuals and households could perhaps have been more highlighted, and considerable repetition could have been avoided. After all, the two are not essentially different, since the household scores were obtained by adding individual scores. Hay's data indicate a few significant differences, but most of the relationships are the same.

In reference to the Hay scale, which con-

sists of the Chapin Scale for formal organizations plus a system for scoring informal participation—I found myself wondering how the weights for informal activities were decided upon. At best, scale weightings involve some arbitrary decisions. In some uses of scales this may be relatively unimportant, but when weights for formal and informal participation are combined, a decision as to the relative importance of the two is involved. In this case the decision apparently was in favor of participation in formal organizations, since the weights for each formal activity are greater and the average scores of individuals come out higher for formal participation, in most instances. This being the case, there might be some question whether correlation of the total scores with the Chapin scores and with the number of "group affiliations" are adequate as tests of the validity of the scale. More than half of the total scale score is the Chapin score, so that some correlation would almost be assured.

In reference to his validity tests, the author concludes that "these tests . . . indicated high ability for its measuring what it purports to measure: social participation of individuals." I wonder if it would not be more exact to say that the three tests measure the same thing, which we may label social participation if we want to. The tests, as far as they are reported, do not seem to indicate which of the three is the better test.

One matter of terminology might be mentioned in passing. The author uses the term "rural organizations" to include the formal organizations and the "informal groups" which are the two parts of his scale. This seems somewhat misleading, since the term organization as used by the layman implies the formal type, and as a sociological term is broader than the total of the items measured by this scale. Also, "rural organization" suggests a distinct division of rural and urban and the implication would be that participation in urban organizations by rural people, particularly the "rural residents," is not to be included or measured.

³ June, 1950 and September, 1948.

Approaches to the Rural Doctor Shortage*

(With special reference to the South)

By Milton I. Roemer, M.D.†

ABSTRACT

The increasing shortage of rural doctors is a result of the concentration of wealth and facilities in the cities over the last century, associated with the rise of specialization, higher costs of medical education, and reduced national output of physicians. To cope with it corrective measures have included direct subsidy of doctors by towns, rural medical student fellowships, various forms of persuasion, strengthening of medical schools in rural states, several wartime manpower measures, information services, construction and regionalization of hospital facilities, and organization of rural prepayment plans in various forms. To solve the problem effectively there are needs for (1) more doctors nationally; (2) more rural facilities; (3) adequate financial support for medical services through insurance and taxation; and (4) other minor local inducements.

Of all the problems of medical care in rural regions of the nation, probably none is more pressing than the shortage of doctors. Other difficulties in rural health service, like the need for health departments or hospitals, seem academic by comparison with the terror struck in a farmer's heart when a doctor is not available to treat his sick child.

It is small wonder perhaps that there is a shortage of physicians in rural areas when one reads a story such as that which recently appeared in a New Haven newspaper. It was an Associated Press release from Atlanta and told of the plight of an old country doctor in Forsyth County, Georgia. The doctor was now in the hospital for a serious operation and he issued a public statement which read:

I am now asking your aid like you asked mine thousands of times.

* An address in the Emory University Community Educational Service, delivered at the Academy of Medicine, Atlanta, Georgia, May 9, 1950.

† Yale University, Department of Public Health.

Do you remember how good you felt when maybe snow covered the ground or in all other kinds of bad weather, when you heard my voice say "I will come." Now, my friends, I am asking you to come and pay me the small fees charged you for my services.¹

The appeal accomplished very little, however, according to the newspaper; some \$25,000 in debts remained. It is small wonder that there are difficulties in attracting physicians to rural counties when this kind of sum in unpaid accounts can accumulate.

No region in the nation presents the issue of maldistribution of physicians more acutely than the South. With respect to every class of medical and allied personnel, with the possible exception of untrained midwives and chiropractors, the figures show the South to have a poorer supply than any other part of the nation. In this discussion I would like to avoid statistics; there are plenty available but

¹ "Pay Up, Bedridden Doctor Pleads, But Debtors Are Deaf To His Need," *New Haven Evening Register*, (May 5, 1950), 1.

it's impossible to keep them up-to-date and they're soon forgotten. Instead, we might explore some of the underlying causes of this maldistribution of physicians and some of the steps taken to correct it.

Underlying Causes

In a nutshell, the personnel problem of the South is because the South is overwhelmingly rural. There are areas of the nation, like the Great Plains, more thinly settled than the South, but there is none with more rural people—that is, people living in places of under 2500 population. Relative to industrialized economies, agricultural economies in the United States and throughout the world are poor. They are less able to support medical personnel, facilities, and agencies than are urban centers. In this lies the basic problem.

Medical shortages have not by any means been a permanent feature of the South. Before the major industrialization of the United States occurred in the nineteenth century, there was no apparent problem. A correspondent of the *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, writing in 1843 from the rural South, describes conditions in Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas as follows:

Many young graduates have come to this part of the country with the idea they could make a fortune in a few years, that they could at once step into a lucrative practice, that physicians were greatly needed, and that practice was waiting to receive them. But, alas! they have been badly disappointed—mis-

taken, perhaps, when it was too late for their good. They little knew or thought that there were twice the number of doctors here that the community needed; that years of experience and toil were as necessary here to secure confidence, influence, and business, as in the New England States; that competition in practice was carried to a much greater extent, as there is a greater supply of medical practitioners.²

Then what happened after 1843? Briefly, a few major changes in our social structure had immense influence on the distribution of physicians. As cities grew throughout the nation, wealth became concentrated in them. Available buying power for medical services grew more rapidly in the cities and, with it, higher educational levels conducive to the utilization of services. Hospitals became constructed in the cities along with auxiliary facilities for rendering medical service. Medical education became more complex and expensive, and students came increasingly from urban families with the financial resources to support such training. Specialization developed and with it the need for large markets of demand for limited types of service, found most easily in the cities. Finally, the total output of physicians for city and country alike declined after 1910. It declined for good reason, coincident with the elevation of standards in

² George Rosen, *Fees and Fee Bills: Some Economic Aspects of Medical Practice in Nineteenth Century America*, Bulletin of the History of Medicine Supplement No. 6 (Baltimore, 1946), pp. 16-18.

medical education, but the decline relative to the growth of population and the increased capacities of medical science was still real.³

As a result of all these forces, since about 1900 the relative supply of doctors in the rural South has become steadily worse. This is especially interesting in the face of gradual improvements in other aspects of health service in the South. There has been a continual expansion of hospital facilities and the number of beds per thousand people has risen. There has been extension of various clinics and laboratories. Public health programs have immensely expanded, with construction of health centers and broadening of the scope of community preventive services. There has been an increase in the South's supply of dentists, of nurses, and of technicians. But the relative supply of physicians has declined.

Corrective Measures

While the decline in the relative supply of rural doctors has been most acute in the South, it has been a feature of rural medicine in all parts of the nation. A review of the corrective measures which the problem has stimulated will be most fruitful, therefore, if it includes measures taken anywhere in the country, as well as the numerous measures originating in the South.

Among the earliest approaches was the policy of direct local governmen-

tal subsidy of doctors settling in rural communities. The first such step, of which I know, occurred in New Hampshire in 1923. A state law passed in that year reads:

Towns may at any annual meeting vote to raise such sums of money as they may deem necessary towards the support of a resident physician in such towns which, in the absence of such appropriation, would be without the services of such physician.⁴

Only a few semi-rural communities acted on this authority, although as recently as 1946 Plainfield and Cornish townships did so, voting to pay a physician the difference between his private earnings and a guaranteed minimum annual income. This general subsidy pattern has been used also in small towns of Massachusetts, Vermont, up-state New York, Maine, Wisconsin, Indiana, and Maryland. Occasionally the subsidy has been given in the form of payment, at a relatively liberal rate, for services rendered in a public health program, especially examinations of school children.

Another type of measure to attract physicians to rural communities has been to offer various personal inducements. New England towns have offered young doctors rent-free houses. A Georgia county I visited several years ago was offering a young physician an automobile as an attraction. Petitions with hundreds of signatures may offer moral induce-

³ Milton I. Roemer, "Historic Development of the Current Crisis of Rural Medicine in the United States." *Victor Robinson Memorial Volume: Essays on Historical Medicine* (New York: Froben Press, 1947).

⁴ Harry H. Moore, *American Medicine and the People's Health* (New York: Macmillan, 1927), p. 195.

ments and the assurance that the physician will have many friends and patients.

In the 1930's the Commonwealth Fund gave fellowships to medical students on the condition that they would practice in a rural community for a few years. The results were discouraging; after the period of obligation was finished, nearly all these men left the rural community for an urban setting. This program was not combined with any arrangements for income maintenance or for medical facilities.

Nevertheless, this pattern has been resumed in the last decade under the aegis of several state governments. Virginia passed the first such law in 1942, providing tuition and living expenses for the entire medical education of local candidates. The graduate had to agree to practice in a community, chosen from several designated by the State as needing a physician, for the same number of years as the number during which fellowship aid was given. In 1945, North Carolina enacted a similar program. Since then, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Indiana, Kentucky, and Florida have done likewise, although not all these states have appropriated funds each year to implement the statutes. It is too early to tell how effective these efforts will be; combined with other measures, they may be successful in meeting the medical needs of some communities. Relative to the size of the problem, however, the number of physicians trained through these programs is small.

Many medical schools have at-

tempted to persuade students of the advantages and attractions of rural practice. One of the first schools to do this systematically was the University of Tennessee School of Medicine, emphasizing training in general medicine. Meanwhile, in 1925 the school publicized every county in Tennessee to attract medical applicants on the ground, according to Dean O. W. Hyman, that "70 per cent of graduates entering private practice return to their home communities."⁵

Another more vigorous form of persuasion is to offer the medical student or recent graduate a period of first-hand experience in a rural setting. Each year at Yale Medical school, for example, 5 senior students are sent out for a preceptorship under a rural-general practitioner in Connecticut. An increasing number of internships and residencies in the larger teaching institutions involve a period of service in selected rural hospitals. The medical schools of the University of Michigan and the University of Kansas have done this. In Mississippi, medical students are offered summer jobs in rural health departments, and similar programs have been developed in New York State, Louisiana, and Kentucky. In Mexico, for some years every medical graduate has been required to perform a period of "social service" of 6 to 12 months in a rural village

⁵O. W. Hyman, "The Number and Distribution of Physicians in Southern States as Bearing upon the Policies of Southern Medical Colleges," *Southern Medical Journal*, XXX (January, 1937), 85-88.

following hospital internship. All these measures may help to persuade some medical graduates to begin their practice in a rural section.

Still another approach to the rural doctor shortage has been to strengthen the medical schools in rural states or to develop new schools. North Carolina has put heavy stress on this approach, as has Alabama whose 4-year medical school was developed largely through state legislative appropriations. North Dakota has recently developed a 4-year school and West Virginia has been actively debating the subject. A major motivation in all these efforts has been to train more doctors for the rural sections of the home state.

But even state tax funds are apparently inadequate to meet the needs of medical education. Medical schools are highly expensive to establish and to operate. Federal funds to subsidize all types of health professional education are being proposed and a bill to provide these was recently passed by the United States Senate,* though not by the House. These funds would be used for assisting and expanding present medical schools and possibly for helping to launch new ones. They would help to support an over-all increase in the production of physicians, dentists, and related personnel. It is believed by many that the shortage of doctors in the South and other rural regions cannot be fundamental-

ly attacked without enlarging the overall supply.

During and immediately after the Second World War a number of federal programs were undertaken which directly or indirectly were designed to improve or at least stabilize the supply of doctors in rural areas. In 1943, Congress enacted Public Law 16 to pay transportation expenses and \$250 a month, for the first three months in practice, to doctors who would move to a community needing one. Only a handful of physicians and dentists were relocated under this program.

There were the wartime specialized training programs of the Army and Navy and the Cadet Nurse Corps which helped to train an increased number of personnel, some of whom will settle in rural communities. Moreover, by paying expenses, these programs made it easier for many rural youth to undertake medical training.

The National Procurement and Assignment Service in the War Manpower Commission was the vehicle for attempting to balance the medical needs of the civilian population with those of the armed forces. Its efforts, however, did not meet with complete success, because in most rural regions, especially in the South, military medical quotas were rapidly exceeded.

In the immediate postwar years, efforts were made to use surplus military property to further health aims. Rural hospitals were to be given expensive medical equipment at low

* S. 1453 "Emergency Professional Health Training Act of 1949." 81st Congress, 1st Session (August 3, 1949).

cost and physicians were to be given office equipment and supplies if they would choose a rural location. There were many conflicting interests involved in the disposal of surplus property, however, and the lofty objectives of serving rural welfare were simply not realized. While these wartime and postwar programs were generally disappointing in their effects, they have provided experience which may prove useful under other circumstances.

Another general approach to attracting physicians to rural areas has been the systematic provision of information to both doctors and communities. Such an "Information Service" has been maintained by the American Medical Association's Committee on Rural Health Services. It works through the state and county medical societies and attempts to bring together doctors seeking a place of settlement and communities needing medical service. In addition, many rural communities independently advertise in medical journals, describing the advantages they can offer a doctor. Whatever other measures are used to correct the maldistribution of physicians, a free flow of information is obviously essential.

A somewhat negative influence on the distribution of doctors are the state medical licensure laws. They should be mentioned because of the challenge that remains to relax them as barriers to the free interstate movement of qualified practitioners. Reciprocity of licensure between states is only about 50 per cent ef-

fective and wide discretion is sometimes exercised by Medical Examining Boards to reduce the exchange below this. A recent case in Wisconsin, in which a physician licensed in another state and certified as a specialist by the American Board of Pediatrics was refused admission, has highlighted the issue. It has been charged that licensure bodies may sometimes do more to limit professional competition within a state than to meet its medical care needs. The National Board of Medical Examiners is in some degree correcting this problem and perhaps more should be done to extend its program.

The remaining measures that have been taken to correct the maldistribution of physicians are probably the most far-reaching: the construction of medical facilities in rural areas and the organization of prepayment plans for medical care.

The establishment of hospitals in rural communities has for years been a fundamental approach to the problem of attracting doctors. In 1946, with the enactment of the Hospital Survey and Construction Act, this approach was given nation-wide impetus. The largest share of funds under this program has gone to the Southern States and hundreds of new hospitals are now erected or under construction in rural counties. It is still too early to evaluate the effects of this work in attracting physicians, but some preliminary reports are optimistic.

Kansas has recently gotten into the news through a similar approach.

Under the leadership of the University of Kansas Medical School, small communities around the state are raising funds to build health centers and community clinics which may serve as offices for practicing physicians. Meanwhile the Medical School is providing post-graduate courses and consultation services for the rural doctors.

The entire process of regional planning and organization of medical services, designed largely to enrich the resources of rural medical practice, has been blossoming in the last few years.⁷ Since the Bingham Associates Fund first explored the improvement of the quality of medical care in rural Maine in 1931, plans have been developed in Michigan, Virginia, upstate New York, Louisiana, Mississippi and many other states. A two-way flow of services is involved in these regional plans, with consultant services going from the center to the peripheral areas and patients being referred from rural localities to the urban center. Pathology, x-ray, blood bank, and similar services are furnished on a travelling basis. Internes and residents are sent from the central to the rural hospitals, to the mutual benefit of the rural medical staff and the trainee. Post-graduate medical courses are offered systematically for busy doctors. An amendment to the Hospital Construction Act was recently passed which would

provide funds to help the states set up such regional plans, so that their growth is likely to continue. All these steps improve the technical foundations of rural medicine and help attract physicians to the small towns and villages.

Finally, there are prepayment plans, both the oldest and the newest method of attracting physicians to rural sections. In the nineteenth century, lumber, mining, and railroad enterprises organized prepayment plans among their workers, as a way of assuring the presence of doctors at isolated posts. These plans are still operating and, while they are subject to much justified criticism, they do make available medical services which might otherwise be totally lacking.

On a governmental basis, the prepayment idea in rural areas was launched on this continent by Saskatchewan and Manitoba around 1917.⁸ Rural municipalities (equivalent to our townships) in these Canadian provinces levy a flat per capita tax on all residents to support a salaried general medical practitioner. Several hundred thousand Canadian farm families receive medical care through these plans.

General community prepayment plans to meet rural medical needs were started in this country about 20 years ago. The first such plan was sponsored by the National Farmers Union at Elk City, Oklahoma. The

⁷ E. Richard Weinerman, "Regionalization of Medical Services," *The Annual* (Western Branch, American Public Health Association, 1949).

⁸ C. Rufus Rorem, *The "Municipal Doctor" System in Rural Saskatchewan*. (Publication of The Committee on the Costs of Medical Care No. 11). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931.

prepayment idea was associated with a cooperatively owned hospital, as in many such programs developed since. With the aid of special endowments, somewhat similar programs have provided especially high quality physicians' services for the rural people in and around Cooperstown, New York and Hanover, New Hampshire.

In the South, still other programs have utilized the prepayment device. The most extensive program was that of the Farm Security Administration, a governmental agency which stimulated the organization of voluntary prepayment plans in several hundred Southern counties. These plans were confined to certain low-income families, constituting only a small percentage of the county's population, so that their effect in holding doctors in rural sections was probably small. In 1942, however, a special Experimental Rural Health Program was launched in 5 Southern counties (Cass and Wheeler Counties, Texas; Newton County, Mississippi; Nevada County, Arkansas; and Walton County, Georgia), in which prepayment membership was open to any local farm family.⁹ This program depended on subsidies from the U. S. Department of Agriculture to help pay the prepayment premiums for low-income families—a pattern that has since been embodied in several bills

proposed in Congress. Since the withdrawal of federal grant funds in 1946, I do not know the current situation in these counties, but there was evidence that while they operated these plans helped to hold physicians in the rural locations and to attract some new ones.

Since about 1945 a number of rural health cooperatives, as they are called, have been organized in the South without outside aid. Chiefly in Texas and Oklahoma, these plans have usually been associated with the construction of hospitals, the member paying an initial membership fee toward construction costs, and annual service fees thereafter. They guarantee upwards of \$10,000 annual net income to participating physicians and provide all office facilities. Despite some local professional opposition and the hesitancy of physicians to work for a lay organization, some 20 to 30 of these plans are operating in the South at present.

More Doctors for the Rural South

Although this discussion has concerned rural areas generally, the measures to attract doctors to almost any rural section could apply to the South and many of the most significant steps have been taken in the South. Focussing, in conclusion, on the problems of the South, is there any clear-cut program that can be outlined to meet the medical needs of the approximately 25,000,000 people who live here?

There is certainly no one answer. Virtually all the measures reviewed

⁹ U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *The Experimental Health Program of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. A Study Made for The Subcommittee on Wartime Health and Education, U. S. Senate* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1946).

above have a place in a total attack on the South's doctor shortage. In my opinion, however, the greatest needs are the following:

(1) More physicians nationally. Everyone recognizes the maldistribution of personnel between town and country, but where is the city that has any true excess of doctors in relation to the health needs of the urban and surrounding population it serves? There are few or no such cities, so that the problem is not solely one of maldistribution. There is a clear need for an over-all expansion in the output of physicians beyond the increased number demanded by the natural growth of the national population. This calls for financial aid from many sources for the enlargement of present medical schools and possibly the development of new ones. An increase in the output of doctors need not compromise the quality of medical education any more than the quality of chemists or physicists has deteriorated with their increased production in recent years. The issue of federal aid to medical and other professional schools is being debated in Congress and its outcome will materially affect the question of doctors for the South.

(2) More and better coordinated medical facilities. The Hospital Survey and Construction Act and the local action it has stimulated have yielded much progress, but far more is needed. Systematic coordination of services between rural and urban centers is needed through regional

planning. For the latter some funds are required, but far more important are organization and leadership, such as are available in every Southern State. Through such programs the professional isolation of the country doctor can be wiped out.

(3) Adequate financial support. This is basic to all measures; without it medical services cannot be provided in the South or elsewhere. Physicians will not practice where they cannot prosper. Modern civilization has found the answer to this problem in combinations of insurance and tax support for medical services. Great progress has been made in both approaches, but much remains to be done. There are still millions of citizens in the South, white and Negro, who cannot afford the medical care that conscientious doctors know they should have.

Various formulas combining insurance and tax-support have been proposed in the state and national legislatures. There has been great debate over the years between the approach of voluntary or compulsory enrollment. Actually the issue today is not nearly so sharp as some might imagine, because no one any longer expects the purely unassisted voluntary approach to health insurance to solve the medical care problem, especially in the South. Therefore both major parties have introduced bills in Congress which would give various forms of governmental assistance to voluntary medical care insurance plans. Meanwhile, scores of organized programs have developed throughout

the nation for special population groups, for special diseases, or for special classes of medical service. They have been based on tax support, community charity, or insurance. They have developed with and without legislative action.¹⁰

The only area of disagreement remaining is the question of the freedom of choice of the individual to budget on a group basis for medical care or not to budget. So long as the health of one person affects the welfare of another, this issue raises large questions of social philosophy. In the field of education, the issue was decided a hundred years ago in favor of collective as against individual will. How it will be decided in health service remains to be seen. Yet, until this basic problem of financial support is effectively answered, it is doubtful if the whole question of doctors for the South will be solved.

(4) Local inducements. Finally all the immediate steps that states and rural communities can take to attract doctors may be grouped together. Giving them rent-free houses, furnishing equipment and office space, advertising for them, offering local public health positions with ample rewards, providing summer experience to medical students, giving medical fellowships, strengthening medical schools in rural states all may help. Yet these measures are all

frankly marginal to the central needs of more doctors, better facilities, and adequate financing.

There are several germane questions omitted in this review of the distribution of physicians and efforts to affect it. The pattern of medical service, for example, whether individual or group practice, is relevant. Exact determination of the optimal supply of physicians for a population group is highly relevant to this whole problem. Space does not permit discussion of these questions. At the risk of seeming dogmatic, it may be suggested that medical manpower can be conserved through group practice arrangements and that the optimal supply of physicians, according to 1950 medical standards, is somewhere around one physician (including generalists and specialists) to 800 persons. Both these statements require qualification in particular circumstances, but if they are true in a general way they help further to define the goal for medical personnel in the South.

Some are pessimistic about ever attracting enough competent young physicians to rural sections of the South. They say that the "cultural advantages" of city life are overwhelming. Elsewhere a discussion of this large question was concluded with the following words:

When the problem of financing medical care is solved and when planned and up-to-date physical facilities are available, there need not be as much concern as some have expressed that the lack of social and cultural ad-

¹⁰ Milton I. Roemer and Ethel A. Wilson, "The Pattern of Organized Medical Care Programs in a Rural County," *American Journal of Public Health* (July, 1950), 821-826.

vantages in rural sections will remain a barrier to the settlement of medical personnel. There are already many psychological and social values in rural life that need only be experienced to be appreciated. There is real prospect, moreover, of steady cultural improvement in such fields as child and adult education, library service, recreational activities, and rural church programs. The lines of transportation and communication are constantly shortening, with better roads, the growth of air travel, continuing developments in radio transmission, and the prospect of television. Social and recreational facilities may be on a simpler plane than in the metropolis, but

there are human satisfactions in community gatherings and in knowing your neighbor as an individual. Life in the open country still has a fundamental appeal and rare is the physician who would not enjoy fishing or hunting close at hand without undertaking an expensive expedition. More important, there are unique satisfactions in doing a needed job and in being a respected leader in the life of a community—undefinable values found less often in the turmoil and competition of the city.¹¹

¹¹ Frederick D. Mott and Milton I. Roemer, *Rural Health and Medical Care* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1948), pp. 521-522.

Factors Associated with Recent Changes of Farm Income in Alabama*

By Robert T. McMillan†

ABSTRACT

This study shows the relationship of selected sociocultural factors to changes in the average gross farm income per farm person in Alabama between 1940 and 1945. At least six factors were found to be associated closely with variations in increases of farm income during the period studied.

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to observe the relationship of selected sociocultural factors to changes in gross farm income per capita between 1940 and 1945 for counties of Alabama.

Farm income in Alabama, as in all states, rose sharply from 1940 to 1945 due to increases in prices and produc-

tion accompanying the war-inflated demands of military and civilian populations and for other reasons. The average gross farm income per capita in the State increased from \$89 to \$298 between 1940 and 1945.¹ It is

¹ The number of persons reported by the Census of Agriculture as living on farms in 1945 is not exactly comparable to the number of persons classed as "rural-farm" in 1940, but it is assumed that the differences will not invalidate the findings of this research. Gross farm income refers to the total value of farm products sold or used by farm households in the years 1939 and 1944.

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assumed in this study that many factors, operating singly or in combination, were associated with the wide variations in increases of average farm income per capita among the several counties.

Alabama ranked last or next to last among the forty-eight states on the average gross farm income per person living on farms in each of the last three censuses. The extremely low level of farm income in this State is associated with comparatively low rank on many indexes of education, health, housing, and other aspects of well-being. Therefore, it is important to learn what the major correlatives of farm income are in Alabama, and to measure the effects of changes in selected factors upon increases of farm income during the period studied.

Method of Study

Data for this research were taken from the 1945 Census of Agriculture and earlier censuses. Percentages, ratios, and indexes were calculated for each of the 67 counties of Alabama based upon items that appeared to be relevant. Although census data reflect many limitations in scope, completeness, and accuracy, they can be used advantageously in a study of this nature.

The first step in this research was to correlate 25 items with the average "total value of farm products sold or used by farm households in 1944" per person living on farms in 1945. The next step was to analyze the relationships between specific factors and changes in farm income, with certain

variables held constant. *Variance*, the technique used, is defined as the average of the summed squared deviations from the mean. It is a method of differentiating the sources of variation and of interpreting the relative importance of several components simultaneously.

Among the several sociocultural factors correlated with average gross farm income per capita, seven resulted in coefficients of .40 and over. These items, with their Pearsonian correlation coefficients, were:

Average value of land and buildings, livestock, and farm machinery per person	.70
Per cent of farm operators living on present farms less than one year	.67
Number of acres of cotton and peanuts harvested per 100 persons on farms	.64
Per cent of farms classed as self-sufficing	-.62
Per cent of farm operators 65 years old and older	-.60
Number of tractors per 100 farms	.58
Per cent of farm operators working 100 days or more off their farms	-.40

It was not feasible to include all these variables in planning a design to analyze variance chiefly because the number of entries in each cell would be unequal and ensuing difficulties would defeat the effectiveness of the technique. The design in Table 1 controls or removes the influence of the average value of farm assets per person and the per cent of farms classed as self-sufficing. These variables were controlled because they showed the highest positive and the highest negative correlation, respectively, with farm income.

Class limits of the variables held constant were set to give approximately equal counties in each group.

TABLE 1. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN AND SUMMARY FORM OF VARIANCE ANALYSIS ON CHANGES OF INCOME.

Variables Controlled	Quartile Distribution of Changes in Farm Income By Counties According to Size of Factor Tested			
	1	2	3	4
<i>Counties with:</i>				
A. Less than 32 pct. of farms classed as self-sufficing				
a) Farm assets of less than \$676 per person	—	—	—	—
b) Farm assets of \$676 and over	—	—	—	—
B. Thirty-two pct. or more of farms classed as self-sufficing				
a) Same as above	—	—	—	—
b) Same as above	—	—	—	—
Source of Variation	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Variances	F
Quartile	3	— — —	— — —	—
Value of Farm Assets	1	— — —	— — —	—
Self-sufficing Farms	1	— — —	— — —	—
Experimental Error	61	— — —	— — —	—
Total	66	— — —		

One source of variation—the interaction between value of assets and type of farming—was omitted from the summary because sub-groups of counties in “a” and “b” of the design were not equal. The F-ratios shown in Table 2 were obtained through dividing the variance derived from the quartiles by the variance of the “experimental error.” This “error” contains the amount of variation which can be attributed to factors not controlled, and in this particular case, variation due to interaction of the controlled variables. The F-ratio indicates the degree to which variance of the factor being tested could have occurred by chance. Even though the data were based upon a complete enumeration rather than a sample,

it is appropriate to use the F-ratio and other tests of significance.

Factors Related to Changes of Farm Income

Analysis of 16 factors through the application of variance and other tests of significance discloses that at least six were related rather closely with changes of farm income. The data for the discussion which follows are summarized in Tables 2 and 3.²

² The F-ratios do not disclose if differences in income per capita between quartiles are statistically reliable or whether they change in the same direction. Therefore, only those factors in Table 2 were considered relevant for this study, and appear in Table 3, if the changes in average farm income per capita varied in the same or nearly the same direction, and if the critical ratios of differences between means of the first and fourth quartiles were statistically significant.

TABLE 2. COMPARISONS OF VARIANCE IN ANALYSIS OF FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH CHANGES IN GROSS FARM INCOME PER PERSON LIVING ON FARMS, ALABAMA, 1940-1945.*

Factor	F**	Consistency in Direction of Changes in Income Among Quartiles
<i>Percentage points change from 1940 to 1945 in:</i>		
1. Farm operators occupying present farm less than 1 year	268.3	Regular
2. Number of tractors per 100 farms	239.1	Regular
3. Farm operators working 100 days or more off their farms	14.2	Regular
4. Farms operated by tenants	10.4	
5. Farm operators 65 years old and older	6.4	
6. Farm operators classed as non-white	5.1	
7. Farms classed as self-sufficing	1.0	
<i>Percentage change from 1940 to 1945 in:</i>		
8. Acres of cotton harvested	10.8	
9. Number of cattle and calves	7.2	Nearly Regular
10. Average value of land and bldgs., livestock, and farm machinery per farm person	5.2	
11. Population living on farms	2.4	
<i>Percent of:</i>		
12. Farms classed as sub-units of multiple-unit operations	21.5	Regular
13. Farm operators 65 years old and older	13.0	Nearly Regular
14. Total farm population under 14 years old	2.8	
<i>Average:</i>		
15. Income distribution index	13.6	
16. Number of persons per 100 acres of land in farms	2.6	

* Original data from *U. S. Census of Agriculture: 1945*, Vol. I, Part 21; Vol. II, *General Report*; and *Special Report of Multiple-Unit Operations in Selected Areas of Southern States*.

** F is significant for a value of 2.76 at the 5 per cent level, and for a value of 4.13 at the 1 per cent level. Since the same experimental design was used for each analysis, these values indicate the relative importance of the factor tested. The limitations of these data are described in the text.

Duration of Occupancy on Farms. Increases in the average gross farm income per capita between 1940 and 1945 were related most highly with changes in proportions of farm operators who had occupied their present farms less than one year (Table 3).

This positive relationship is difficult to explain. Farm operators liv-

ing on present tracts less than one year tended to be concentrated in counties where land and building values per acre were higher, farms contained larger acreages, and the frequency of tractors on farms was greater than the corresponding averages for the State. It is possible that during World War II when movements of population increased gen-

TABLE 3. AVERAGE CHANGE IN GROSS FARM INCOME PER CAPITA FROM 1940 TO 1945 AMONG COUNTIES OF ALABAMA ARRANGED INTO QUARTILES, FOR SELECTED SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC FACTORS.

Factor	Average Change in Gross Farm Income Per Capita Among Counties Arranged Into Quartiles According to Decreasing Size of Factor				Critical Ratio*
	1	2	3	4	
1. Percentage points change of all farm operators living on present farms less than one year	\$275	\$196	\$177	\$158	7.85
2. Points increase in number of tractors per 100 farms	262	219	168	162	8.70
3. Percentage points change of farmers working 100 days or more off farm	168	185	219	236	5.91
4. Per cent of all farms classed as sub-units of multiple-unit operations	236	209	207	152	7.30
5. Per cent increase in number of cattle and calves	236	195	197	178	5.04
6. Per cent of all farmers 65 years old and older	169	164	199	273	9.04

* Of differences between means of quartiles 1 and 4.

erally, competition for land offering better-than-average economic opportunities resulted in changes of location of disproportionately large numbers of families.

Farm Mechanization. From 1940 to 1945, the increases of gross farm income per farm person varied directly with increases in the number of tractors per 100 farms. The average farm income per capita rose \$262 in the quartile of counties which had a gain of 5.6 tractors or more per 100 farms. At the other extreme, the corresponding average increase amounted to \$162 in the quartile with gains of fewer than 2.8 tractors per 100 farms.

Alabama has lagged behind other states in the use of tractors and related equipment. It ranked forty-

seventh among all states in the number of tractors per 100 farms, with an index of 7.6 in 1945. A special census report on multiple-unit operations shows that there were 37.1 tractors per 100 plantations as compared with 6.7 machines per 100 single farms. The possibility of increasing farm income through farm mechanization should accelerate the diffusion of farm tractors over the State.

Part-time Farming. An inverse relationship existed between the average increases in gross farm income per capita and changes in proportions of farmers working 100 days or more per year off the farm.

The recent increases of part-time farmers have occurred largely in areas with urban centers or important nonfarm industries located outside

cities. On the other hand, farmers in areas where cotton, peanuts, and livestock are important enterprises seem to be spending more time on their farming activities, especially during profitable years.

Plantations. Gross farm income per capita tended to increase directly with the per cent of farms classed as sub-units of multiple-unit operations. This item was reported for the first time in the 1945 Census of Agriculture, and therefore the change from 1940 to 1945 was not ascertainable.

Plantations tend to be concentrated in counties with comparatively high land values. A combination of rapid mechanization, fairly adequate capital, advanced farm technology, and better-than-average management enable these large-scale enterprises to increase incomes sharply during a period of inflated demands for cotton, livestock, and other farm commodities.

Cattle and Calves. From 1940 to 1945, the increases of gross farm income per capita were largest in those counties of Alabama with the greatest percentage increases of cattle and calves. The increase of 44 per cent in numbers of cattle on farms in the State during this period can be attributed to several recent adjustments observed in agriculture, namely: (1) a sharp decrease in acres planted to cotton, (2) replacement of horses and mules, (3) development of year-round pastures and (4) economic advantages of beef and dairy enterprises on farms.

Old-age Farmers. Increases of farm income per capita during the five-year period were related inversely to the percentage of all farm operators 65 years old and over in 1945 (Table 3).³ Other data at hand suggest that counties with high proportions of old-age farmers have lagged in farm mechanization and the shift from cotton to livestock production. Also, these counties contain higher than average proportions of self-sufficing farms. A recent report states that "old-age and its concomitants were an important factor affecting the proportion of farm families at the low end of the income scale."⁴

Comparison of Alabama With Other Southern States

The foregoing discussion has disclosed important correlatives of farm income and of changes in this income from 1940 to 1945 in Alabama. This question can be raised: Do these factors contribute to the State's low status in the South with respect to farm income per capita?⁵ Data at hand indicate that Alabama ranked

³ Between 1940 and 1945, the amount of increase in average farm income per person when related to the amount of change in percentage of farm operators 65 years and over varied as follows: Quartile one, \$174; two, \$190; three, \$229; and four, \$212. The critical ratio between the means of the first and fourth quartiles is 3.10.

⁴ *Low-Income Families and Economic Stability.* Materials on the Problems of Low-Income Families Assembled by the Staff of the Subcommittee on Low-Income Families. Joint Committee on the Economic Report. 81st Cong. 1st Sess. Washington: U. S. Govt. Ptg. Office, 1949, p. 37.

⁵ In 1945, gross farm income per farm person averaged \$457 in the South and \$769 in the Nation, as compared with \$298 in Alabama.

lowest among states of the South in average value of farm assets per person and in number of tractors per 100 farms. It had nearly the highest percentage of farms classed as self-sufficing, and a relatively small average number of cattle and calves per farm. These facts suggest that the relatively low farm income per capita in Alabama results from a combination of general factors including (1) excessive numbers of farm population, (2) limited land and other capital resources, (3) lag in the adoption of farm mechanization and other advances in agricultural technology, and (4) disproportionately large numbers of self-sufficing and small general or cotton farms with related weaknesses of social organization.

Summary

The findings of this study indicate that at least the following factors were associated with changes between 1940 and 1945 in gross farm income per person on farms in Alabama counties, with average value of farm assets per person and per cent of farms classed as self-sufficing held constant: (1) change in per cent of farm operators living on present farms less than one year, (2) increase

in number of tractors per 100 farms, (3) change in per cent of farm operators working 100 days or more per year off the farm, (4) per cent of all farms classed as sub-units of multiple-unit operations, (5) per cent increase in number of cattle and calves, and (6) per cent of all farm operators 65 years old and older. Significant F-ratios were obtained for several other factors, but inconsistency in direction of income changes among counties arranged according to size of factors and absence of statistically significant differences between average per capita incomes of selected groups of counties failed to disprove the null hypotheses. This does not rule out the possibility that many of these factors may have been related to variations in income among individual counties.

The factors associated most closely with changes between 1940 and 1945 in average farm income per person probably symbolize the most dynamic and important influences now operating in the agriculture of Alabama and other southern states. Also, it is significant that these factors reflect clearly the interaction of population, technology, social organization, and natural resources in effecting changes of farm income.

Some Population Trends in the More Rural States, 1940-1950

By Joseph S. Vandivert†

ABSTRACT

Although adequate analysis of the population shifts of the 1940's awaits detailed census data, the preliminary returns indicate, in gross, some major trends. Rapid urbanization characterized most of the 28 states in which, in 1940, the majority of the population was rural. Indeed, Texas, Minnesota, Louisiana, and Nevada are now predominantly urban. The total population of all 28 states increased more slowly than the national population. Of these states, four showed declines; a few western states grew rapidly. In sixteen of the states, the rural population decreased, with heaviest losses occurring in the western half of the Cotton Belt and in the Plains states. Except in the Far West and some Atlantic states, rural losses were general, away from the vicinity of cities. Urban growth, which occurred in every state, was particularly rapid in the South Central and Southwestern states.

As the materials of the 1950 Census become available, analysis of the great migrations and population shifts during the 1940's will be of key interest. As is well known to students of rural life, population shifts in rural America during the decade are expected to be revealed as among the most significant in our history. During the 1930's, poor employment opportunities resulted in a piling-up of young people in rural areas, especially in areas where the agricultural system approached the subsistence type. The resumption of the usual migratory paths on the part of these young people; the effects of changes in crop production and agricultural technology; the pull exerted by unusual opportunities for industrial employment in an era of war and prosperity; broadened horizons and new ties resulting from the military experience; the continuing movement of rural Negroes from the South to the greater freedom and opportunities of the

North; the opening of new irrigated areas in the West—these are some of the factors presumably related to the shifts of population from and within agricultural America. The trends in American villages, the presumed increase of part-time farming, and the growth of suburban population classified as rural are likewise of tremendous interest.

All but the most exploratory investigations of population trends must, of course, await the release of detailed data, but, in gross, some of the more significant changes in rural America are evident in the preliminary returns now available.¹

These reports show the population of each county in the United States, and all incorporated towns of 1,000 and more. Although the data are subject to revision, usually upward, it is unlikely that changes in any one category will be so great as to alter ma-

¹ All data are derived from Census releases, Series PC-2, giving preliminary counts of the 1950 population.

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terially the trends evident in the preliminary releases.

This investigation seeks to determine the gross trends in the rural urban composition of those 28 American states in which 50 per cent or more of the 1940 population was rural. Grouped following the Odum regional delineation, there were three such states in the Northeast (Maine, Ver-

mont, and West Virginia), two in the Middle States (Iowa and Minnesota), and two in the Pacific States (Nevada and Oregon), a total of nine states in these predominantly urban regions. The four states of the Southwest, every Southeastern state except Florida, and all states in the Northwest except Colorado and Utah, complete the list of states included.

TABLE I. PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN SELECTED POPULATION CATEGORIES, 1940-1950, AND PERCENTAGE URBAN, 1940 AND 1950, IN 28 STATES.

Region and State	Change in Total popu- lation	Change in rural population	Change in urban population	Change in same cities (All urban in either census)	Per- centage urban, 1940	Per- centage urban, 1950
NORTHEAST:	5.69	1.38	14.61	12.35	35.37	32.62
Maine*	7.5	6.8	8.4	8.4	42.2	41.9
Vermont*	4.6	0.9	11.7	8.2	37.0	34.7
West Virginia	5.1	-0.5	19.4	15.8	31.9	28.1
MIDDLE STATES:	4.69	-3.20	13.80	12.55	50.46	46.42
Iowa	2.9	-4.5	12.9	12.2	46.9	42.7
Minnesota	6.3	-1.8	14.5	12.8	53.6	49.8
SOUTHEAST:	9.42	0.15	30.61	27.20	36.33	30.44
Alabama	7.8	-5.8	39.1	34.9	39.0	30.2
Arkansas	-2.4	-15.1	41.9	35.7	32.2	22.2
Georgia*	9.9	0.8	27.6	22.6	39.5	34.0
Kentucky	2.7	-2.8	15.4	11.9	33.6	29.8
Louisiana	12.8	-5.2	38.3	34.9	50.8	41.5
Mississippi	-0.5	-10.0	38.0	35.2	27.5	19.8
North Carolina	13.1	8.3	25.9	23.7	30.4	27.3
South Carolina	10.9	4.5	30.6	25.1	28.9	24.5
Tennessee	12.6	7.1	22.7	21.1	38.4	35.2
Virginia	22.1	14.1	36.9	34.8	39.5	35.3
SOUTHWEST:	15.76	-10.54	51.58	46.99	55.44	42.34
Arizona	49.3	45.8	55.8	51.1	36.4	34.8
New Mexico	27.3	2.4	77.5	73.5	46.2	33.2
Oklahoma	-4.8	-22.9	25.2	22.6	49.5	37.6
Texas	19.7	-11.9	57.7	52.3	59.8	45.4
NORTHWEST:	3.57	-7.07	22.86	19.59	42.18	35.56
Idaho	11.5	1.2	31.7	26.8	39.8	33.7
Kansas	5.2	-5.0	19.3	18.0	47.5	41.9
Montana	5.0	-3.5	18.9	16.5	42.8	37.8
Nebraska	0.2	-10.5	16.9	15.1	45.6	39.1
North Dakota	-3.7	-11.3	25.6	23.5	26.8	20.6
South Dakota	1.1	-10.3	36.0	25.4	33.1	24.6
Wyoming	15.2	-6.2	51.1	32.4	48.9	37.3
PACIFIC:	39.21	37.55	41.00	33.98	48.53	47.92
Nevada	43.6	11.8	92.7	72.9	52.7	39.3
Oregon	38.8	40.6	36.8	30.6	48.1	48.8
Total, 28 States	9.95	-1.97	31.66	28.31	42.46	35.46

* To obtain precise comparability of data in these 3 states, it was necessary to include, in 1940 urban totals, the entire population of a few New England townships and to eliminate from the 1940 urban totals one unincorporated zone near Atlanta.

TABLE 2. POPULATION IN 1950, AND CHANGE DURING PREVIOUS DECADE, OF SELECTED CATEGORIES IN 28 STATES.

Region and State	Rural Population		Urban Population		Population of same cities— all urban in either census	
	Total 1950	Change 1940-50	Total 1950	Change 1940-50	Total, 1950	Change, 1940-50
NORTHEAST:						
Maine*	2,123,383	28,865	1,162,003	148,090	1,164,311	128,002
Vermont*	525,510	33,305	384,946	29,925	384,946	29,925
West Virginia	236,670	2,039	139,163	14,563	139,163	10,539
MIDDLE STATES:						
Iowa	1,361,203	-6,479	637,894	103,602	640,202	87,638
Minnesota	2,764,891	-91,348	2,815,842	341,513	2,820,582	314,607
Wisconsin	1,388,033	-66,004	1,224,565	140,334	1,224,565	133,364
Illinois	1,376,858	-25,344	1,591,277	201,179	1,596,017	181,243
SOUTHEAST:						
Alabama	18,368,156	28,060	10,480,361	2,456,042	10,489,616	2,243,096
Georgia	1,861,736	-115,284	1,191,018	335,077	1,193,196	308,673
Florida	1,288,837	-228,040	612,794	180,864	612,794	161,173
South Carolina	2,078,317	16,247	1,354,873	293,220	1,354,873	249,970
Kentucky	1,941,267	-55,033	980,441	131,114	982,826	104,764
Louisiana	1,311,359	-72,082	1,355,663	375,224	1,355,663	350,758
Mississippi	1,576,038	-174,876	597,335	164,453	599,645	156,149
North Carolina	2,812,425	214,977	1,226,389	292,214	1,226,389	234,689
South Carolina	1,498,797	65,104	608,635	142,524	608,635	122,262
Tennessee	2,022,321	133,686	1,259,950	232,744	1,259,950	219,990
Virginia	1,977,059	243,961	1,293,263	348,588	1,295,645	334,668
SOUTHWEST:						
Arizona	5,046,217	-594,686	6,277,676	2,136,242	6,293,196	2,011,782
California	474,246	148,966	271,013	97,032	273,191	92,429
New Mexico	363,970	8,553	313,182	136,781	313,182	132,704
Oklahoma	1,122,568	-334,213	1,101,092	221,429	1,105,871	203,865
Texas	3,085,443	-417,992	4,592,389	1,661,000	4,600,952	1,582,784
NORTHWEST:						
Idaho	3,435,509	-261,401	2,506,183	466,264	2,510,942	411,385
Montana	352,393	4,228	232,699	55,991	232,699	49,209
Nebraska	995,248	-51,839	899,142	145,201	903,901	138,096
North Dakota	335,909	-12,012	251,428	39,893	251,428	35,601
South Dakota	717,175	-84,511	600,904	86,756	600,904	78,898
Wyoming	452,329	-57,683	165,636	33,713	165,636	31,498
PACIFIC:						
Washington	435,009	-49,865	215,020	56,933	215,020	43,490
Oregon	147,446	-9,719	141,354	47,777	141,354	34,594
California	859,669	234,704	810,714	235,748	810,714	206,614
Nevada	74,856	7,900	83,427	40,136	83,427	35,173
Arizona	784,813	226,804	727,287	195,612	727,287	170,441
Total, 28 States	32,597,325	-655,806	24,052,779	5,783,899	24,089,361	5,314,486

* See note, Table 1.

These 28 states contained in 1950 56,651,000 people, approximately 38 per cent of the national population. During the decade, their gain was just under 10 per cent (Table 1), as compared with 14 per cent in the nation as a whole. The four states which lost population (Oklahoma, North Dakota, Arkansas, and Mississippi) are all among the states included. Some of the western states in this sample were among the most rapidly growing of American states; Arizona, with a growth of 49 per cent, was second only to California in rate of growth. Nevada, Oregon, and New Mexico also gained more than 25 per cent. Of the remaining 20 states in our sample, however, only Virginia, Texas, and Wyoming increased at a rate more rapid than the national average. By regions, the two states of the Pacific Coast gained about 40 per cent; the Southwest, as a region, likewise increased slightly more rapidly than the national average. The other regions, as represented in this group of more rural states, increased less rapidly than the nation, with the smallest regional growth occurring in the Northwest.

These 28 states which were, in 1940, predominantly rural, at that time contained 33,250,000 rural residents (Table 2), about 58 per cent of the national rural population. During the decade, however, there was a decline of nearly 656,000 in the rural population of these states. The trend in the rural population varied widely from state to state. In Arizona, the rural population gained 45.8 per cent,

and in Oregon, over 40 per cent. In Virginia the rural population registered the third largest increase—14.1 per cent. Examination of county figures reveals that much of this growth occurred in areas adjacent to Washington and the group of cities on Hampton Roads, and thus reflects suburbanization. Small to moderate increases occurred in the rural population of nine other states. Until rural-farm and rural-nonfarm materials are available, it will be impossible to know if these gains were entirely off the farm, but in any event, in several of the easternmost of the selected states, there remained small gains in the rural population after metropolitan counties and incorporated towns were eliminated from consideration.

However, losses in rural population were more characteristic of the selected states. In 16 of the states, the preliminary rural population in 1950 is less than that of 1940. The losses range from about 6,000 (0.5 per cent) in West Virginia—a number so small that it may be virtually offset in final figures—to 418,000 in Texas. Percentagewise, the decline of 22.9 of the rural population in Oklahoma was the most striking loss. In addition, Arkansas, Texas, North Dakota, Nebraska, South Dakota, and Mississippi recorded declines of ten per cent or more in their rural populations.

Dividing the states into the regional divisions (Tables 1 and 2), one finds declining rural populations in the Southwest (with a rural decline

of over ten per cent) and the Northwest. Small declines were also reported in the two representatives of the Middle States. Very small gains were reported for the states of the Southeast and Northeast, whereas the two Pacific states reported a rapid rural growth.

Actually, these regional groupings somewhat obscure the pattern of declining rural population. Within the Southeast, for example, the almost stationary rural population of the region as a whole covers a sharp differentiation of states. The South Atlantic states and Tennessee showed distinct gains, just sufficient to offset the losses of rural population in Kentucky, Alabama, and the states of the lower Mississippi Valley. Likewise within the Southwest, the large percentage gains of Arizona and New Mexico are overwhelmed in regional totals by the losses in Texas and Oklahoma.

A glance at the losses by states (Tables 1 and 2) reveals two broad belts of sharply declining rural population. One of these is the western half of the Cotton Belt, from Alabama westward, in which every state recorded a rural loss of five per cent or more. The other belt is that of the Great Plains, in which, again, all states recorded a loss of five per cent or more. Indeed, in this area only Kansas recorded a rural decrease of less than ten per cent. In Oklahoma, where these two belts merge, the heaviest proportional loss of all was recorded.

Examination of county figures in

the Plains states reveals that the greatest losses were not in the thinly-settled westernmost counties, many of which had tremendous declines in the dry 1930's. Indeed, especially in Kansas, many of these western counties recorded small numerical, but large proportional, gains, presumably a response to the favorable conditions for large-scale wheat production in recent years. The more thickly-settled eastern and central portions of most Plains states recorded the greater losses in rural population.

Within the South, the rural counties of cotton-growing West Tennessee, showed decreases comparable to those of adjacent states. Examination of county returns shows that losses of rural population, except in the immediate vicinity of cities, occurred very generally throughout Mississippi, Arkansas, West Tennessee, East Texas, and non-French sections of Louisiana. One perhaps surprising result in these states is suggested by the fact that the proportional losses in plantation areas, where widely discussed technological changes have been underway, appear not to exceed, and are sometimes less than losses in upland areas of small farms.

In both the western part of the South and the Plains states, these preliminary returns give every indication that careful analysis of trends of the farm population, and the relationship of these trends with changes in agricultural operation, will prove most interesting. The fairly moderate declines in the total rural population in some plantation sec-

tions also lead one to wonder whether the decline of the Negro population in those areas has been as great as has been popularly assumed; if so, then a compensatory current of whites to replace some of the departing Negroes may be shown to have occurred.

Another topic which, on the basis of these returns, promises fruitful research when materials are available, is the contrast between the more westerly portion of the Cotton Belt, on the one hand, and the South Atlantic states, on the other. An hypothesis worthy of careful checking is that the growth of the total rural population in South Atlantic States was made possible by the retention of the population in sections of those states where the industrial-agricultural combination is basic in the local economy.

In most states, sizeable gains in rural population occurred in counties containing, and adjacent to, larger cities; except in parts of the West, most of the increase in rural population appears to have occurred in such areas. In some states in which rural losses were great, counties containing cities reported large rural gains. Even the large loss of rural population in Oklahoma, for example, occurred despite sharp gains near Oklahoma City and Tulsa. There seems no reason to doubt that losses in farm population will be revealed as being more widespread, and sharper, than can be indicated from these preliminary county returns.

The increase of the urban popula-

tion in most of these states was rapid—31.7 for the group as a whole (Tables 1 and 2). Indeed, four of the states have, in the past decade, become predominantly urban. In Texas, nearly 60 per cent of the population now resides in urban areas, while Nevada, Minnesota, and Louisiana also now have larger urban than rural populations. It will also require some revision of our thoughts about Oklahoma and Wyoming to realize that they are now 49.5 and 48.9 per cent, respectively, urban.

The most rapid percentage growths in urban population occurred in Nevada and New Mexico; in each case, very rapid growth of relatively small cities and the entrance of new towns into the urban category produced striking growth. By all odds, the most impressive urbanization of all, however, occurred in Texas. While the rural population of Texas was declining by 418,000, its cities, large and small, were accumulating 1,681,000 new residents to reach an urban total of nearly 4,600,000 people—57.7 per cent greater than ten years ago.

In the rapidly growing states of Arizona, Oregon, and Virginia, the urban growth was large—55.8, 36.8, and 36.9 per cent, respectively. Despite the size of the urban growth, however, the cities of Oregon did not keep pace with the rural population there; this is the only one of the 28 states in which the rate of rural growth exceeded that of cities.

Indeed, there was little relation between the trend of city growth and that of the rural population. Inas-

much as a relationship exists, it would appear to be inverse; i.e., the urban gains were striking in a number of those very states in which rural losses were great. Ranking of states not already mentioned, on the basis of the rate of urban growth, would show Wyoming, Arkansas, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Dakota as the states of more rapidly-growing cities; in all these, the urban increase was more than 35 per cent.

By regions, the most rapid growth of cities occurred in the Southwest, followed by the two states of the Pacific region and the Southeast. Actually, as the above listing of states shows, every state between Alabama and Arizona was characterized by very rapid urban growth, forming the largest contiguous block of states of rapidly expanding cities.

The rate of urban growth was moderate in the states representing the Northeast and Middle regions, as well as in the South Atlantic states of the Southeast (except Virginia). The quite slow rate of urban growth in some of these states, considered along with the rural gains in them, suggests that cities in older states may generally find the extension of municipal boundaries a more difficult task than is the case further westward.

Since a part of the growth of urban areas occurs at the expense of rural areas, as the result of towns passing the 2,500 mark, the 1940 and 1950 populations of all places which were urban in either census were totaled (Column 4, Table 1, and Columns 5

and 6, Table 2). The rate of growth of these same towns is, of course, universally less than that of the urban category. The principal differences occur in less populous states where a change in classification of a few towns can produce the appearance of an important trend. In Wyoming, for example, where the urban population increased 51 per cent, the population of the same places increased by the less impressive margin of 32 per cent. However, for most states, particularly the more populous ones, the differences between the two are not especially striking, and the statements made above about areas of most rapid urban growth continue to apply. Following this procedure a step further, and substituting for the rural population the remaining population after the totals of the same places have been removed, one finds that the small declines in rural population in West Virginia and Wyoming become small increases. Put more simply, the margin of rural decrease in these two states was more than accounted for by a shift of certain towns from one category to the other. This technique reveals that the fourteen other states with rural losses also registered declines in the "remaining population."

These losses ranged from 5,400 (0.4 per cent) in Minnesota to over 300,000 in both Texas and Oklahoma, amounting in the latter to a decline of 22 per cent.

In Table 3, cities above 50,000 are grouped into size categories and their numerical and percentage rates of growth are shown. This is a compari-

TABLE 3. POPULATION IN 1950, AND NUMERICAL AND PERCENTAGE GAINS, 1940-1950, OF CITIES OF 50,000 AND ABOVE AND OF METROPOLITAN COUNTIES, BY REGIONS.

Description	28 States	Northeast	Middle States	Southeast	Southwest	Northwest	Pacific
Cities above 250,000:							
Population, 1950	4,863,306		826,751	1,954,438	1,711,106		371,011
Numerical change, 1940-1950	990,615		46,645	278,011	600,342		65,617
Percentage change, 1940-1950	25.58		5.98	16.58	54.05		21.49
Cities, 100,000-249,999:							
Population, 1950	3,540,194		281,020	1,817,379	898,498	543,297	
Numerical change, 1940-1950	788,823		20,136	441,196	244,462	83,029	
Percentage change, 1940-1950	28.67		7.72	32.06	37.38	18.04	
Cities, 50,000-99,999:							
Population, 1950	2,803,084	289,450	294,178	1,277,324	714,721	227,411	
Numerical change, 1940-1950	613,762	11,228	31,912	270,360	263,500	36,762	
Percentage change, 1940-1950	28.03	4.04	12.17	26.85	58.40	19.28	
All cities, 50,000 and above:							
Population, 1950	11,206,584	289,450	1,401,949	5,049,141	3,324,325	770,708	371,011
Numerical change, 1940-1950	2,393,200	11,228	98,693	989,567	1,108,304	119,791	65,617
Percentage change, 1940-1950	27.15	4.04	7.57	24.38	50.01	18.40	21.49
Metropolitan counties:							
Population, 1950	16,998,694	647,752	1,996,294	8,107,739	4,672,214	1,016,550	555,145
Numerical change, 1940-1950	4,022,719	69,857	244,616	1,814,929	1,552,651	197,750	142,916
Percentage change, 1940-1950	31.00	12.09	13.94	28.84	49.78	24.15	34.67

son of the same cities, classified on the basis of their 1950 population. In this table, the population is also shown for metropolitan counties, (classified as such in 1940 plus counties containing cities which reached 50,000 during the decade).

The materials in Table 3 are, on the whole, consistent with the description of urbanization given above. In these states, as a unit, there is not much difference in the rate of growth of cities by size categories. There are considerable variations within regions, often caused by the particular growth record of one or two places. Outside the Southwest, cities above 250,000 grew less rapidly than did smaller cities, but in the Southwest, each of the four larger Texas cities of Houston, Dallas, San Antonio, and Fort Worth added half again to their 1940 populations—the gain for the four of them, taken together, was 54 per cent. All in all, the 20 Southwestern cities containing 50,000 or more inhabitants gained by 50 per cent.

Growth of cities above 50,000 was much more moderate elsewhere. In the three Northeastern states, the four such cities gained less rapidly than did their states as a whole, and the eight cities in Iowa and Minnesota increased only 7.6 per cent. The only Pacific Coast City represented is Portland, which increased 21 per cent. The six cities above 50,000 in the Northwestern states of this sample increased 18 per cent; the 36 Southeastern cities gained 24 per cent. Within the Southeast, however, the rate of growth of the cities tends to

become greater as one goes westward. The cities above 50,000 in all 28 states gained 27 per cent during the decade.

These contrasts in growth from one region to another continue, somewhat diminished, when we compare metropolitan counties (Table 3).² The increase of metropolitan counties amounted to 31 per cent (which, incidentally, was 78 per cent of the total population gain of these 28 states). By regions, only in the Southwest did the gain in metropolitan counties fail to equal that of the cities themselves, although this was also true of several specific districts in the lower Mississippi valley. The gain of metropolitan counties in the Southwest is impressive—49.8 per cent. The fact that it is very slightly less than the increase in the central cities, however, further emphasizes the possibility suggested above: that some part of the contrast in rural-urban trends between the regions results from a greater success in extending corporate limits in certain states than in others.

In the Northeast, metropolitan counties increased about three times as rapidly as did cities above 50,000 and in the two Middle States, the rate is nearly twice that of such cities. In the Southeast and Northwest the rate of growth of metropolitan areas is greater, though not strikingly so, than that of the cities. The one Pacific metropolitan district — Portland — showed a gain of 34.7 per cent. Of

²In some instances, the metropolitan counties belong to cities in other States, sometimes outside this study. (The Kentucky counties in the Cincinnati metropolitan district are an example.)

course, it is apparent that the very means of selecting these states prevented inclusion of the entirety of any of the larger American metropolitan areas. (The Twin Cities area is the largest metropolis in this sample.)

This examination of certain population trends, as evidenced in preliminary returns of the 1950 census, indicates that even with these limited data, great internal changes in many of these states may be established. The rural population of 16 of the 28 states has declined. Although in two states this decline is explicable by towns changing from the rural to the urban category, in 14 states the decline persists when this factor is considered. In all states the urban population has increased; rather slowly in the eastern states, but only in Oregon was urban growth less than that of rural areas. The greatest rural losses occurred in the Plains States and the western half of the Cotton Belt; the greatest urban gains occurred in the Southwest and Deep South.

To conclude, we might point out that the amount by which the percentage urban in 1950 exceeds the percentage urban in 1940 is the simplest index of the rapidity of the urbanization of these states. For the group as a whole, urban dwellers now compose 42.5 per cent of the population, as compared with 35.5 per cent in 1940, or a difference of 7.0. Texas, with a difference of 14.4, had the most rapid transition toward urbanization, followed, in order, by Nevada, New Mexico, Oklahoma (where "urbanization" proceeded as much by loss of rural as by gain of urban population), Wyoming, Arkansas, Louisiana, Alabama, South Dakota, and Mississippi.

Of these states, however, 24 continue predominantly rural. North Dakota is now our most rural state (73.2 per cent). Mississippi, South Carolina, North Carolina, West Virginia, Arkansas, and South Dakota, listed in descending order of proportion of rural population, all have as many as two-thirds of their residents in rural areas.

RESEARCH NOTES

Edited by Robin M. Williams, Jr.

METHODOLOGY IN A MICHIGAN HEALTH SURVEY*

This paper is a description of the procedure used in one of our research projects at Michigan State College—the Michigan Health Survey. The primary purpose of the research was to add knowledge about the sociological aspects of health. In connection with the study, however, certain methodological experiments were possible. This report will describe these experiments and, in addition, will present in some detail the major steps of the study that are important to an understanding of the methodological aspects.

The methodology of the current statewide health survey is actually a part of an extensive and varied research effort which is now being made in the sociology of health and health care throughout the United States. Relevant health research at Michigan State College and other research organizations, therefore, provided to some extent the foundation for the study under consideration. These earlier studies are of particular importance because of the contribution which they made to the development of the instrument that was used to provide a statistical measure of the need for medical attention.

In 1944, Dr. E. A. Schuler of Wayne University, then with the USDA and later a member of the faculty at MSC, took the lead in developing a method of measuring unmet need for medical care.¹ It consisted of questioning informants concerning twenty-two symptoms, the presence of any one of which during the previous six months, it was agreed by five physicians in the United States Public Health Service, would constitute a need for examination and diag-

nosis by a medical doctor. Failure to consult a medical doctor for one or more of these symptoms was considered an unmet medical need. Schuler's work also indicated this so-called "symptoms approach" appeared to be as effective in the hands of a lay interviewer as it was in the hands of professional medical personnel.²

In 1946, in connection with a three-county study of "Health Care of Farm Families," arrangements were made to have a sample of families who had been interviewed with the schedule containing the list of symptoms, receive a medical examination at a clinic. The result was a rather convincing validation of the instrument. For eight out of ten of the individuals examined at the clinic, the symptoms list had predicted correctly whether or not these individuals needed medical attention.³ Among the instances when disagreement occurred the findings showed a tendency for the informant to report no positive symptoms whereas the medical examination showed evidences of need. This degree of accuracy was found despite the fact that the span of recall for symptoms was increased for this study from six months to a full year. It should be pointed out that the individual, not the symptom, is the unit of investigation in the symptoms approach. One or more positive symptoms places the individual in the category of need and if a doctor has not been consulted about it, that particular symptom becomes an unmet need. Results of

¹ Analysis of reporting of symptoms by sex of interviewer necessitated the elimination of some symptoms which could not be obtained by male interviewers.

² Charles R. Hoffer, Edgar A. Schuler in cooperation with Rosalie Neligh, M.D. and Thomas Robinson, M.D., "Determination of Unmet Need for Medical Attention Among Michigan Farm Families," *The Journal of the Michigan State Medical Society*, XXXVI (April, 1947), 443-446.

* Approved as Journal Article 1236 from the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station.

¹ Edgar A. Schuler, "Development of a Method for Measuring Unmet Health Care Needs," 1946 (Mimeographed).

the three-county study showed that the percentage of individuals having one or more unmet needs tended to increase with a decrease of the gross income of the family, with lack of education, and with an increase in the age of the individual.⁴

Other researchers have used the same symptoms list in ten other states and, in a Spanish translation, in Cuba and Peru. In general they obtained results similar to those obtained in Michigan. Out of the background of this extensive use of the symptoms approach, the Michigan state-wide health survey was organized.

Purpose and Origin of the Survey

The major purpose of the survey was to ascertain the extent of unmet need for medical attention by use of the symptoms approach among a representative sample of the population in Michigan. Other purposes were to obtain information about the availability and use of medical services, methods of paying for health care, attitudes regarding physicians and medical care, and the attributes and characteristics of people which might be related to all three of these areas. In addition, the physician-service area and the population-physician ratio for every community with a total population of one thousand or more was to be determined. Using these data, interview surveys were to be made in one community lacking medical services and one community well supplied with medical services.

Because officials of the Michigan State Medical Society were of the opinion that our method and findings would yield valuable information, funds to augment those provided by the Agricultural Experiment Station were made available by the Medical Society and the Michigan Foundation for Medical and Health Education, Inc. The Agricultural Extension Service and the Social Research Service at the College made smaller though important contributions. It

was therefore possible to test further the assumption of members of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology that intensive and continued research in a particular field will have cumulative results and thus proportionally greater return for each additional unit of effort and funds expended.

The Instrument and Source of Information

The schedule for this study has two main parts. The first part, containing the list of symptoms, was asked of the female head of each household in the sample. That is, she was expected to report not only her own symptoms but also those of other members of the family. (This was the procedure used in the 1946 study in which such high agreement was found with the results of medical examinations.) The second part of the schedule dealt mainly with opinions and attitudes about health and medical care. These questions were asked of every third adult in the sample population. Whenever this third adult was not the female head, this person was also asked about his own symptoms. The data thus provided another test in methodology: the comparison of the need for medical attention as reported by the female head with the need as reported by the individual himself. In a majority of cases these individuals would be the male head. Thus it is evident that only adults were involved in the comparisons. There were a total of 182 cases involved. In every instance the "other adult" was not present when his symptoms were being reported by the female head.

The data were classified into three categories, namely "high level of agreement," "substantial agreement," and "high level of disagreement." The first category means that there was agreement between the two reports. "Substantial agreement" implies that for the purpose of this study there is corroboratory evidence of need or lack of need for medical care between reporting by the female head on another adult and the reporting by the other adult on himself. "High level of disagreement" indicates that

⁴ Charles R. Hoffer, *Health and Health Services for Michigan Farm Families*. Michigan AES Special Bulletin 352 (East Lansing: September, 1948).

there were clear differences in the two reports.

Table 1 gives the detailed figures for each category. It is clear from the data that the categories "high level of agreement" and "substantial agreement" account for 78 per cent of the total. In other words there was agreement in about 8 out of each 10 cases.

The disagreement reported in the third category is of two basic types. The first three items (27 cases of 15% or the total) represent instances in which data provided by the female head indicate no need for medical attention while data provided by the other adult would indicate that there is medical need. The second type of disagreement (13 cases or 7% of the total) is made up of instances in which the female head provided data on another adult which indicated need for medical care although interviews with that adult did not corroborate the need. If this situation held true for larger samples it would seem logical to conclude that dependence on the female head as informant on symptoms for all adults would result in about an 8% (15%-7%) under-enumeration of need for medical care. And for analysis involving cross tabulation, about one fifth (22%) of the cases would be incorrectly classified. It is our belief that for the purpose of gaining a statistical basis of need among a group of individuals or a local community, the housewife can give the necessary information for other members of the family, but the fact that some under-enumeration will result must be recognized.

The Sample

Since our major focus of interest was on the health needs of the rural population (yet we wanted enough urban data for purposes of comparison) the committee decided to omit Wayne County. The exclusion of that county, with its heavy concentration of population in the Detroit area would make it possible to analyze the rural data in greater detail. Arrangements were made with the Statistical Laboratory of Iowa State Col-

lege to draw an area sample which would yield 800 households.

The sample, as finally drawn, consisted of 191 geographical segments of approximately 5 households in each drawn at random from a universe of approximately 200,000 such segments. Every household in each segment was to be interviewed, with some minor variations from this in the cities where the block residential system makes it more convenient to interview every fifth household in a block of 25 households rather than to try to break the block into 5 sampling units and interview 5 consecutive houses.

A sample of the size we had drawn yields one household per 1,000 in the state, grouped into economical interviewing units of about 5 households each. While this obviously represents a saving in cost, it does so at some expense to the representativeness of the sample. Decrease in the size of the sampling unit to two households would assure better representation but the cost, both of interviewing and of drawing the sample, would have been beyond our means. Even as it was, the cost of drawing our sample was high. We estimate that it cost about a dollar per household to determine who was to be interviewed. We are satisfied, however, that the area sample is so much more representative than any quota control sampling plan as to be worth the extra cost.

Selection and Training of Interviewers

A group of six graduate students in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology were employed to do the field work. Their training consisted of a study of the instructions for selecting households in the sample segment, a study of the questions in the schedule, and trial interviews in the vicinity of East Lansing. They were instructed to make two additional calls on successive days if a person were not available for interview on the first visit. They did, we feel, a very commendable job. Only about 2 per cent of all persons approached refused to cooperate.

TABLE 1. COMPARISON OF INFORMATION ABOUT SYMPTOMS REPORTED BY FEMALE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD FOR OTHER ADULT WITH THE REPORT OF THE ADULT FOR HIMSELF, MICHIGAN 1948.

	Number	Per Cent
<i>High level of agreement:</i>		
(A)*Female head reports no positive symptoms for other adult; reporting corroborated by other adult on self	69	38
(A) Female head reports one or more positive symptoms and indicates that all symptoms were treated by an M.D., a non-M.D., or both, reporting corroborated	28	15
(B)*Female head reports one or more positive symptoms none of them treated; reporting corroborated	25	14
(B) Female head reports one or more positive symptoms untreated and one or more treated; reporting corroborated	6	3
Sub-total, high level of agreement	128	70
<i>Substantial agreement:</i>		
(A) Female head reports no positive symptoms for other adult; other adult reports one or more symptoms which have been treated	5	3
(A) Female head reports one or more symptoms which have been treated; other adult reports no positive symptoms	5	3
(B) Female head reports one or more untreated symptoms; other adult reports one or more untreated symptoms and one or more symptoms which have been treated	2	1
(B) Female head reports one or more untreated symptoms and one or more symptoms which have been treated; other adult reports only one or more untreated symptoms	2	1
Sub-total substantial agreement	14	8
<i>High level of disagreement:</i>		
(?)*Female head reports no positive symptoms for other adult; other adult reports one or more untreated symptoms	15	8
(?) Female head reports no positive symptoms for other adult; other adult reports one or more symptoms untreated and one or more symptoms which have been treated	9	5
(?) Female head reports all symptoms treated; other adult reports one or more symptoms untreated as well as one or more symptoms treated	3	2
(?) Female head reports one or more untreated symptoms; other adult reports no untreated symptoms	7	4
(?) Female head reports one or more untreated and one or more treated symptoms; other adult reports no untreated symptoms	2	1
(?) Female head reports one or more untreated and one or more treated symptoms; other adult reports only treated symptoms	4	2
Sub-total, high level of disagreement	40	22
TOTAL	182	100%

* (A) Evidence of no medical need.

(B) Evidence that there is medical need.

(?) Evidence of medical need not substantiated.

Relations with the Sponsoring Agencies

The financial grant for the study clearly specifies that the responsibility for all technical matters in the study is in the hands of the professional staff of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology. We have, however, encouraged the participation, in all discussions, of the survey advisory committee of the Michigan State Medical Society. Frequent meetings were held with this group during the planning stages and after the field work began. The members of the advisory committee, all M.D.'s, have had an opportunity to accompany an interviewer into homes where they were not known to be doctors to observe the interviewing process and to hear the statements made by informants about doctors, health and health care.

Such a procedure of involvement of the sponsoring agencies is not a methodological experiment in the strict sense of the term. We feel, however, that the use of this method in different situations with differing kinds of sponsoring groups will provide us with some basis for deciding which is preferable—the technique of continuous involvement or the “give-us-the-money-and-leave-us-alone” procedure. Our hypothesis is that the technique of involvement will pay off in at least three ways:

(1) Our knowledge of special medical and health research problems has been in-

creased by contact with the advisory committee.

(2) The sponsoring agency will be able to make a more intelligent interpretation of the findings because of the participation of their representatives in the detailed planning of the survey.

(3) The sponsoring group will have a better understanding of the contribution which can be made by sociological research whenever problems of group relationships are involved.

Conclusions

The foregoing is an account of the more important elements of the methods used in one research project. The content of the findings of the survey, published as Special Bulletin 365 of the Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station, provides a factual basis for the consideration of health problems by professional and local community groups throughout Michigan, and possibly the results may be of interest to people in other areas in the United States where similar social and economic conditions prevail. It is hoped also that the methods which were tested in this survey will either be directly useful to others working on similar studies or at least provide a challenge to them to try to improve upon our methods.

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CURRENT BULLETIN REVIEWS

Edited by Walter C. McKain, Jr.†

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† Assisted by Elsie S. Manny.

* Reviewed in this issue.

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Human Relations in Agriculture and Farm Life. Farm Foundation. 600 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, 1950. 51 pp.

This is the report of a study of the status of rural sociology in the land-grant agricultural colleges. The study was sponsored by the Farm Foundation as a part of its program designed to stimulate interest and action in the use of the social sciences as instruments for the advancement of rural life in the United States.

The study was made by a committee composed of land-grant college personnel. Of the six members, three are experienced college administrators and three are seasoned rural sociologists. The committee had adequate help. There was also a group of consultants—one a sociologist and two others directors of the Farm Foundation. Assisting at times were several other social scientists, well known for their contributions to the field. It seems fortunate indeed that the committee, with the support of the Farm Foundation, could make this study and publish this report. It shows rather clearly what the colleges are contributing, or failing to contribute, towards a scientific understanding of rural life.

The field is perhaps all too briefly described as that of rural human relations. This description, understandable to social scientists, may convey little if any tangible meaning to many laymen and statesmen. To many persons sociology is neither a science nor an "ology" but an "ism"—socialism, communism, anarchism—anything but democracy.

Perhaps one of the greatest needs of rural sociology is a better delineation of the field and a definition that the average administrator or statesman can understand and appreciate. Doubtless the Society's Committee of Fifteen will accomplish this purpose. Regardless of definition, however, it is difficult to understand why so many agricultural college administrations appear so allergic to scientific study, teaching and extension work in this field. Some conclusions reached by the committee follow:

1. The human relations factor in agriculture and farm life has received less attention than the other major factors—physical, biological and economic. Interest in the social sciences, however, is said to be growing.

2. Rural sociologists are admonished to pay attention to practical problems and to build a science of rural sociology. That is good advice but some of the so-called practical problems are what keep so many rural sociologists in the agricultural dog house.

3. Asked what place has rural sociology in your institution, college administrators said that the subject's place was negligible in 6, of minor importance in 23, moderately important in 4, important in 12 and of major status in three institutions.

4. Asked if rural sociology had been developed as it should be, 7 administrators gave no reply. Of the replies from 44 institutions, only 6 were affirmative, while the other 38 said rural sociology had not been developed as it should be. This was not a very highly commendable showing.

5. A marked shortage of competent personnel in rural sociology was indicated. Apparently the shortage is not due to any excessive demand for rural sociologists in the land-grant institutions. The main demand of late seems to be for service in foreign countries.

6. The report carries considerable platitudes about the functions of rural sociologists, about cooperation, coordination and form of organization—progressive and competent personnel. These abstractions might as well be said of the personnel of the institutions as wholes. There is no such thing as a cow partially with calf. Either she is or she isn't.

7. The difficulties encountered in rural sociological programs of teaching, research and extension are perhaps overemphasized. Much depends on how the administrators go about selling the field to the public.

There appears to be a very strong temptation on the part of Boards of Regents and

college heads to evade rural human issues as political liabilities. Reminds me of what the leading lady in *Lady Windemere's Fan* said many years ago. She said, "I can resist everything except temptation."

BONNEY YOUNGBLOOD.

Rion Hall

Harpers Ferry, West Virginia.

Missouri River Basin Development Program—A Study Guide. Otto G. Holberg. Lincoln: Extension Division, University of Nebraska, Publication Number 175, May 1950. 107 pp. 25 cents.

This publication was prepared for the purpose of providing an outline guide and materials for the study of the Missouri River Basin Development. While it was designed primarily for study groups in the state of Nebraska, it is useful to groups in other states who desire to understand more completely this development and its many ramifications.

The study guide is divided into six parts. The first part presents in outline form a number of pertinent questions vital to an understanding of the Missouri River Basin. Part two, which is the major portion of the study, is a series of excerpts and condensations of materials as answers and suggestions for additional information concerning the questions in part one. The most frequently cited sources of materials are reports of federal commissions, Congressional Hearings, and committees. These provide information regarding such matters as description of the basin, need for a program, legislative background, features of the program, issues involved, and future possibilities. Part three is merely a reference to the library loan packet of materials which has been prepared and is available from the University Extension Division. This loan packet and other materials are important for the effective use of the study outline. Part four is a listing and brief description of audio-visual materials and where they may be obtained. Part five is a list of suggested topics and speakers. Finally part

six presents a number of program suggestions for study groups.

This study guide should be an important aid in encouraging persons to understand the Missouri River Basin Development Program and impress on people, as the guide emphasizes, that "It's Your Business and Mine!"

RANDALL C. HILL.

Kansas State College.

Toward Stability in the Great Plains Economy. Northern Great Plains Council. Lincoln: Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Nebraska, Bulletin 399, July 1950. 110 pp.

This bulletin is a report of a conference held in June, 1949, which was sponsored by the Northern Great Plains Tenure Committee of the Northern Great Plains Council in cooperation with the Farm Foundation. Representatives from the seven Great Plains states composed the group which met to consider some of the problems involved in working "Toward Stability in the Great Plains Economy."

The report of the conference is divided into three major parts: (1) "Rural Life in the Great Plains," which contains background information concerning such items as physical features, human population, crops, livestock, patterns of land ownership, hazards of the region, social institutions, and conditions of living. (2) "Problems Facing Great Plains Farmers Today." This part includes discussions regarding the impact of the Missouri Valley Development on Great Plains farming and living, irrigation as a stabilizing element, farm tax problems, credit facilities and policies, crop insurance, landlord-tenant relations, and getting young farmers started. (3) "The Future of the Great Plains," which includes discussions pointing out the responsibilities of the research worker, the extension worker, and the farmer.

The program of the conference provided for formal papers and panel discussions. This report of the conference is composed of

the papers and the presentations by various persons on the panels and is useful for a general understanding of the problems of Northern Great Plains and approaches to their solution.

RANDALL C. HILL.

Kansas State College.

Farm Family Living in Southeastern Saskatchewan 1947-1948. M. A. MacNaughton, J. M. Mann and M. B. Blackwood. Ottawa, Ontario: Economics Division, Department of Agriculture. 33 pp.

Farm Family Living in Lanark County, Ontario 1947-1948. M. A. MacNaughton, J. M. Mann and M. B. Blackwood. Ottawa, Ontario: Economics Division, Department of Agriculture. 31 pp.

Farm Family Living in Nicolet County, Quebec 1947-1948. M. A. MacNaughton, J. M. Mann and M. B. Blackwood. Ottawa, Ontario: Economics Division, Department of Agriculture. 26 pp.

These studies, conducted by the Economics Division of the Dominion Department of Agriculture in 1947-48, add considerably to the geographic scope of farm family living information in Canada. They were preceded by three benchmark studies in selected areas of Western Canada, one in west central Alberta, one in west central Saskatchewan and another in northern Saskatchewan.¹

The three reports considered in this review relate to the Carlyle-Moosomin area of southeastern Saskatchewan, to the area of eastern Ontario represented by Lanark County, and to Nicolet County in the province of Quebec. A statistical sample of 75 farm families in the Carlyle-Moosomin

¹ F. M. Edwards, *Farm Family Living in the Prairie Provinces*, Economics Division, Marketing Service, Dominion Department of Agriculture, Pub. 787, Tech. Bul. 57, March, 1947. M. A. MacNaughton and M. E. Andal, *Changes in Farm Family Living in Three Areas of the Prairie Provinces from 1942-43 to 1947*, Economics Division Marketing Service, Dominion Department of Agriculture, Pub. 815, Tech. Bul. 69, Feb. 1949.

area, 85 in Nicolet County, and 115 in Lanark County were interviewed by the schedule method during the summer of 1948.

The areas surveyed provide information on three fairly diversified types of farming in Canada. Dairying is the predominant type of farm enterprise in Nicolet County, but it is generally combined with production of hogs and beef cattle. Livestock and milk are the most important products of farms in Lanark County but in the more heavily wooded areas farmers supplement their incomes with the sale of wood and maple syrup. Wheat farming is the major farm enterprise in the Carlyle-Moosomin area but on many farms it is supplemented by production of livestock and livestock products.

The farm families of Nicolet County are predominantly of French origin while the populations of Lanark and Carlyle-Moosomin are largely of British origin. Families of Nicolet County are larger than in the other areas and fewer of them are without children. However, the level of educational attainment, particularly of the wives, is much lower in Nicolet than in either Lanark or Carlyle-Moosomin.

Although each report analyzes family living expenditures during a twelve-month period, the Canadian social analysts are well aware that the level of living attained by a group of families cannot be measured solely in terms of their expenditures for family living, particularly when information on these expenditures is available for only one year. Each report is careful to point out that there may be important differences in the spending habits of individual families owing to differences in their preferences for goods and services which would result in marked differences in their level of living. Thus, they conclude that material

or cultural acquisitions which families possess are more accurate indicators of their levels of living because acquisitions reflect both the social and economic status of a family. That is, possessions acquired in one year may be retained by the families for a number of years and, even in periods of depression when living expenditures may be low, contribute to the level of living of the family.

A "27-item" level of living scale constructed by MacNaughton and Andal¹ was used to measure levels of living of farm families in each area. The average level of living scores were 16.0, 17.8, and 18.6 for Nicolet, Carlyle-Moosomin, and Lanark, respectively. It is important to note that the ranks of the three areas on the average cash outlays for family living do not necessarily coincide with the ranks on the level of living.

Lanark County which had the highest level of living score nevertheless has the lowest cash expenditure, \$1,342 per family, for family living; while Nicolet County with the lowest level of living score had a cash expenditure of \$1,483 per family. In each area the farm provided the family with goods valued at one-third of the total expenditures.

The relatively large families in Nicolet County undoubtedly are a contributing factor to the larger cash expenditures for family living. This fact is reflected particularly in the figure for food expenditures, which amounted to \$529 per family in Nicolet County compared with \$420 in Lanark County and only \$360 in Carlyle-Moosomin.

Each study report analyzes, in addition to level of living scores and family expenditure, such aspects of family living as (1) farm homes, (2) community facilities and

¹ *Op. cit.* p. 46.

	Average cash expenditure per family for family living	Level of living score
Nicolet	\$1,483	16.0
Carlyle-Moosomin	1,500	17.8
Lanark	1,342	18.6

services, (3) recreation and social participation, and (4) attitudes toward farm life.

Using a straight-forward statistical analysis the authors simply present proportions of farm homes with different types of construction and finish; certain features in the house, such as storm windows and basements; the room-person ratio; selected household conveniences and pieces of furniture. By bringing together in summary fashion the average distance that farm families live from the most important community facilities and services some interesting comparisons of the community structure can be made. The data show that farms in Carlyle-Moosomin, on the average, are farther from such facilities as a gravel road, post office, church, community hall, swimming place, doctor, dentist, source of "good" clothes, and a large city. This is not true for facilities such as schools, shipping point, optometrist, hospital and theatre.

Social participation is analyzed in terms of radio and reading habits, hobbies, membership in organizations, and selected activities such as church, dances, picnics, and parties, movies, concerts, athletic events, forums, and family visiting. It is interesting to note that Lanark County, with the highest level of living score, also had the highest percentage of non-participating families, 38 per cent as compared with 28 per cent in Carlyle-Moosomin and only 18 per cent in Nicolet County. Movie attendance, however, was more general in the

Carlyle-Moosomin area and Lanark County as was use of libraries and books in the homes.

One of the most interesting phases of each report relates to the attitudes toward farm life of the housewives. Practically all, 99 per cent, of the housewives, in Nicolet County liked farm life and stated that they would rather live on a farm than in town. The comparable figures for Carlyle-Moosomin and Lanark County were 95 and 93 per cent, respectively. The lesser enthusiasm evidenced in the latter two areas was reported to be caused by dissatisfaction with lack of electricity and plumbing facilities. On the credit side, the farm housewives were convinced that the farm was a better place to bring up children and that it provided a more independent life.

T. WILSON LONGMORE.

U. S. Department of Agriculture.

The Hired Farm Working Force, 1948 and 1949. Gladys K. Bowles, Louis J. Ducoff, and Margaret Jarman Hagood. Washington: U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, November 1950. 43 pp.

This report is based on the results of two enumerative sample surveys made at the end of each of the years 1948 and 1949, by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Agricultural Economics to supplement the information on wages and wage rates collected by the latter agency. The report

Average distance of farm homes from:

	Nicolet miles	Carlyle- Moosomin miles	Lanark miles
Gravel road	0.2	1.2	0.1
Post office	2.0	3.0	2.0
School	2.5	2.5	1.4
High School	—	6.0	9.0
Church	3.0	5.0	3.2
Community Hall	3.0	5.0	3.0
Swimming Place	3.0	28.0	4.0
Doctor	3.0	9.0	8.0
Shipping point	4.0	5.0	9.0
Dentist	8.0	13.0	9.0
Source of "good" clothes	8.0	13.0	12.0
Theatre	8.0	7.0	12.0
Optometrist	14.0	14.0	10.0
City	16.0	120.0	55.0
Hospital	17.0	14.0	13.0

deals with the hired farm working force with special reference to coverage of hired farm workers under the old age and survivors insurance.

The subject matter includes an analysis of the numbers and composition, chief activities, time worked, earnings, distribution by wage income and the patterns of employment of farm wage workers. Wherever feasible these topics are related to the coverage of the workers under the old age and survivors insurance program. The data are for the nation as a whole and are on an annual or quarterly basis.

The professional reader will find this report interesting and valuable in text and tabular data. Those interested in data relating to the coverage of farm workers by the Social Security Act as amended in 1950, will find the materials of special interest. The lay reader will find the materials interesting but of little specific value.

The major limitation of the materials is that they cannot be broken down by geographic regions. Differences existing among various regions relating to numbers and composition, activities, earnings, and distribution of farm wage workers are so great that their application to the various sections of the country is difficult. This restricts the use that can be made of the materials by the reader at the state or regional level.

In conclusion the reviewer wishes to call attention to some of the major changes in the farm wage worker situation between 1948 and 1949 as highlighted in the report. The total number of persons who did farm wage work at some time during 1949 was about 12 per cent greater than in 1948. That practically all of this increase took place among the short-time seasonal workers and in the age group 15-34. In 1949, 32 per cent of the farm wage workers reported that this work was their chief activity. The chief activities of the remaining 68 per cent in ranked order were as follows: operation of farm, attending school, keeping house, non-farm work, unpaid family work on farm and a

small miscellaneous group. There was also a smaller percentage of 1949 workers in the labor force in mid-winter. Workers in 1949 averaged 90 days of farm work compared to 104 days in 1948. It was important that the wage income for full-time farm workers increased in 1949.

ROBERT E. GALLOWAY.

Mississippi State College.

Migratory Farm Workers in 1949. Louis J. Ducoff. Washington: U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Agricultural Information Bulletin No. 25. 1950. 20 pp.

This report is based mainly on the results of an enumerative survey made for the Bureau of Agricultural Economics by the Bureau of the Census. The report deals with the migratory worker in the United States and for the first time significant comparisons can be made between migratory farm workers and other workers on farms. The estimates in the report were based on information obtained by the Bureau of the Census in its regular Current Population Survey in December 1949.

The subject matter includes analyses of the population characteristics, activities, earnings, distribution, and employment of migratory workers in contrast with non-migratory workers.

The professional reader will find the report interesting and valuable in text and tabular data. Those interested in methodology will find the last five pages which are devoted to methodology and appraisal of data very helpful. Student readers should take special cognizance of this section of the report.

The major limitation of the materials in the report is that they are not broken down by geographic regions. Migratory worker patterns differ greatly by regions, and, therefore, this material is of limited use to persons at the state or regional level.

The major findings of the report are that there were an estimated one million migratory farm workers in the United States at

some time during the year, not including an unknown number of Mexican nationals. That by 1948 and 1949, the total number of migratory workers in the United States had increased materially over the low level prevailing at the end of World War II. That the large number of illegal entrants from Mexico discouraged many domestic farm workers from migrating into certain areas where they are commonly used, as they

may have done in other years. That many domestic farm workers consequently confined their job-seeking and employment to their own counties. The effect in these areas was an increase in the number of local seasonal workers as well as a lowering of the average duration of employment of these farm workers.

ROBERT E. GALLOWAY.
Mississippi State College.

BOOK REVIEWS

Edited by Otis Durant Duncan

Marriages and Families of University Graduates. By W. A. Anderson. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1950. Pp. xii + 52. \$1.00.

Marriages and Families of University Graduates (Statistical Supplement). By W. A. Anderson. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1950. Pp. vi + 32. \$1.00.

This monograph and its related Statistical Supplement had their origin in a study conducted by Dr. Anderson in cooperation with the Population Reference Bureau of Washington. Information was obtained by mail questionnaire from 1496 (82%) of the 1836 Cornell graduates in the classes of 1919, 1920 and 1921 whose addresses were known. Without summary, conclusions or generalizations the monograph succinctly presents data relative to marital status, and marital, child bearing and child spacing experiences. These are discussed in relation to such factors as place of childhood home, age, occupation and type of education. The organization of the monograph makes the findings useful to the student, teacher, or research worker in family relationships. The 55 tables in the statistical supplement are the bases for statements made in the first monograph and provide materials for further study and analysis.

Among the principles and generalizations of particular interest are the following: 93 per cent of the men and 63 per cent of the women included in the study were married. Separations are almost unknown and the incidence of divorce is less than that in the general population. Graduates did not marry until almost six years after graduation; 27 per cent were childless, and the average number of children per graduate was 1.64.

The information on child spacing is particularly significant as the sample includes completed families. The average interval

between marriage and the birth of first children is nearly three years. Intervals between successive births are usually longer than intervals between marriage and first births. The pattern of spacing has the same uniformity irrespective of the place where parents were reared, farm, village, or city.

WILLIAM M. SMITH, JR.
Pennsylvania State College.

The American Way of Life. Second Edition. By Harry E. Barnes and Oreen M. Ruedi. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Pp. x + 931. \$4.75.

This volume represents an extensive revision of the first edition. Not only has some new and more current material been introduced, but there is evidence throughout of an extreme terminological criticism which has resulted in an over-all textual improvement.

Retained, however, are the general content and organization of the earlier edition (1942), the use of illustrative materials drawn from contemporary American life instead of social data concerning more primitive cultures, and the concept of cultural lag as the all-pervasive social theory of the book.

This concept is paraded through every section and sub-section as the *causa causans* of all our social problems. The relationship of cultural lag to social problems is treated entirely as causal, in fact, with no attempt to fit the concept into any framework of social action or therapeutic principles. The absence of a program for social action is not necessarily objectionable, but in the light of the naive over-simplification of all social problems to the level of cultural lag, it is at least remarkable that it was not attempted.

Due to the wide circulation and adoption of the first edition no recap of the struc-

tural arrangement of the book is included here. Suffice it to say that such arrangement has been retained almost completely in this volume. The titles of some of the main divisions and some of the section headings have been reworked, and Part IX, *Programs of Economic and Social Reconstruction*, has been omitted entirely. This omission eliminates the former lengthy discussion of capitalism, totalitarianism and the Middle Way utopia, which is all to the good.

In all, this book is a most excellent one of its type, i.e., a text of the widely dispersed survey type for beginning courses in sociology, and deserves the careful consideration of anyone teaching or planning such courses. The range of subject matter spreads eagles the whole field of the social sciences in relation to domestic and world problems, hence is somewhat sketchily developed in places and will necessitate the best of instructional orientation to make it most effective at the introductory level. The materials are well organized, presented in a most interesting style, and are most certainly cogent with respect to present day society and social trends. Topical headings and chapter summaries enhance the usability of the book.

Those who knew the first edition of *The American Way of Life* will find the second edition to be more than a revision—it is a downright improvement.

FRANKLIN E. RECTOR.

Butler University.

All Things Common. By Claire Huchet Bishop. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950. Pp. xiii + 274. \$3.00.

In our world in which the forces of Communism and Capitalism are locked in deadly conflict this book, *All Things Common*, comes as a possible ray of hope. It is not a book of theories but one which describes what is happening in Western Europe as whole families in more than fifty places are pioneering in a new way of life. This is the first comprehensive report on the communitarian movement in Western Europe to reach America.

Using the case study method, the author visited the communities which she describes which have largely sprung up since World War II to answer the great need of the plain people in France, Italy, Switzerland, Belgium and Holland to establish fully the dignity and responsibility of the working man. These communities have not been organized by any committee, but have developed spontaneously to meet the needs of people in industrial areas as well as in rural areas. In one instance a watchmaker decided to help his workers form a community where they would live, work, and play together. In another place a group of small farmers decided to share their resources in terms of land, equipment, skills, and time. They discovered that by doing so each person had more time to enjoy the products of their labors and as a product developed a spirit of community life in which human values were elevated above material and economic values. In another place a furniture manufacturer turned over his plant to his workers and now works with them himself. These people do not claim to have found the solution to all of the problems of our world but have a community of life in which economics serve the working man instead of dominating him, thereby making possible the maximum development of the whole human being along educational, social, and spiritual lines.

As would be expected the religious motivation runs deep in many of these communities but in none of them is membership drawn along sectarian lines. Adhering to simple rules which have come from experience, Communists, Christians, humanists, and others are living and working together that by having *All Things Common* they may all enjoy benefits which under other ways of life they have not possessed.

How long will these communities last? Of what significance are they in our world? Do they offer any solution to people as they try to live together on the community, national, and international levels today? These and many other questions will come to your mind as you read this most inter-

esting and timely book. It is packed full of applied sociology, economics, and Christianity which has been integrated in the lives of people as they are searching for a satisfying way of life in our day.

RICHARD O. COMFORT.

University of Dubuque.

The Rural Economy of New England: A Regional Study. By John D. Black. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1950. Pp. xxiv + 796. \$7.50.

The author sets himself the task of analyzing the rural economy of the New England region in such a manner that the analysis will serve as a guide to its future. But rather than doing a general regional analysis, he indicates that in his opinion, a more specific study would be of more value. Thus, this analysis deals primarily with rural land-use economy in the New England area of the United States.

Materials have been gathered for this book over a twenty-year period. Census material as far back as 1796 but largely from 1930-1945 has been used in conjunction with other published materials on the region. The presence of 155 charts and 123 tables serves to enhance both the readability and the permanent value of the book.

Although the author makes no divisions in the book, the thirty-six chapters seem to this reviewer to fall logically into four sections. In Chapter 1, entitled "The Assignment," the method, scope, and purpose of the analysis is discussed.

The second section includes Chapters 2-14 and is devoted to introductory and descriptive topics about the region. Discussed in this section are such topics as the delineation of the New England region, and people, trade and transportation, soils, and evolution of agriculture of the region.

The third section deals primarily with the agriculture of the region on a commodity basis with the first two chapters devoted to the general topics of marketing and prices. Chapters on dairy, poultry, potatoes, tobacco, fruits, vegetables and

maple products are included (Chap. 15-25). The following nine chapters deal more specifically with the land economics of the region.

The last two chapters comprise a section of summary, conclusions, and what the author calls potentials. Chapter 35 is entitled "Trends, Prospects, and Potentials." In it, Black indicates an optimistic outlook for the agriculture of the region. The last chapter, "Regional Policy and Program," presents a summation of the major points of the preceding chapters.

Probably the chief criticism of the book will be that it is largely descriptive. In this reviewer's opinion, however, this descriptive nature will make the book invaluable as a reference and source book. The long years spent by the author and his associates in sorting and sifting materials have resulted in this body of facts and figures which enables the reader to become acquainted with the most pertinent information about various commodities and topics in the region. The reviewer definitely recommends the book to any person interested in gaining a better understanding of rural New England.

The value of the book as a guide for regional planning is, in the opinion of this reviewer, more questionable than its value as a source of information. The author has carefully stated that any conclusions reached from the analysis will need to be adapted to meet changing conditions. In fact, he goes so far as to say (page 3), "It is not so much for the troubled two or three years immediately following the war, as for the decade or two after that, that the facts and analysis of this book have most significance." The author has in this reviewer's opinion succeeded in his "... hope to marshal the pertinent facts, and analyze and present them in such a way that those concerned will make a better adjustment to the future than would otherwise be probable." However, indications are that the untroubled time following World War II will be longer than two or three years.

Therefore, the period when the facts and analysis of this book have most significance may be farther in the future than the author anticipated.

VIRLYN A. BOYD.

Clemson College.

The Human Community. By Baker Brownell. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950. Pp. vi + 305. \$3.00.

Being written by a philosopher, *The Human Community* has the characteristics of a philosophical treatise. The main thesis of this book is the idea that an underlying conflict of method is corrupting the modern era. On the one hand there is the culture of specialism; on the other, the human community. Brownell regards these patterns of procedure as incompatible. He prefers the human community, but, alas, the community is losing out.

This book considers the human community to be the functional cooperation of human beings with vegetable and animal life. Normally this kind of cooperation occurs in small communities, for a community is a group of people who know one another well. "Knowing well" means a full pattern of functional and social relationships which people have with one another. In such an environment human beings can live out their lives in relative peace and contentment. Each interest somehow checks on the others and thus balance of emphasis is maintained. In this regard the main proposition of the book is supported by qualitative descriptions of life in small communities in Montana. Some of these descriptions are almost poetic in nature. There are no tables in the book. Only an occasional reference or quotation from quantitative studies is to be found. Nevertheless, all this is in essential agreement with the findings of rural sociological research dealing with rural life.

It has been demonstrated that inhabitants of human communities as defined in the book can, and often do, by careful study, planning and work maintain a type of com-

munity life, which is democratic in nature and so organized that "they bring the past and future to bear intimately—and eternally—in this living present of their communal life," (page 36). The author further states, "They have somehow assimilated, at least for their vivid moment here, the technologies of our modern culture into truly human values. In this their success surpasses by far that of most city and suburban folk" (page 36). Yet he grants that life in some rural communities is far from the ideal or even reasonably attainable goals and likewise, not all urban life is bad. It is the tendency or trend in the human community that concerns him. This writer is critical of the apparent habit on the part of social scientists to spell trend with a capital "T" and to assume, perhaps unintentionally, that because a trend exists, it is right.

Whatever the circumstance may be, human communities in the United States, according to Professor Brownell, are losing their organic solidarity. It is being replaced by what he calls agglutinative solidarity, a kind of coherence found among members of an anonymous public. The sense of community does not exist in these publics; hence, they tend to become competitive and aggressive in nature. "The personal give and take, the mutuality of living, are replaced by power" (page 129). In such impersonal situations it cannot be otherwise, so the author states.

This book points out clearly the disadvantages of specialization. They appear in all the major aspects of community life once the sense of community is lost. Even education becomes egocentric and disintegrative. The church loses its significance because it is no longer functionally relevant in the culture. Segregation from the stream of community life, even though it has a religious basis, is inimicable to human well being and is not favorably accepted in the true human community.

What is the remedy? On this point the author insists that the idea of the small community does not imply withdrawal and

isolation from the ebb and flow of modern life. On the contrary, if our culture is to endure, the sense of community must somehow be extended until it envelopes and pervades the whole of our society. It is a tremendous challenge but its accomplishment is the price of survival.

While sociologists may differ with Brownell on ways and means of resuscitating the human community and on some of his interpretations, they are unlikely to disagree with his main thesis. Rural sociological research needs the theoretical orientation and perspective which *The Human Community* can give it.

CHARLES R. HOFFER.

Michigan State College.

The Case For Conservatism. By Bernard Lande Cohen. New York: Exposition Press, 1950. Pp. 143. \$3.00.

A brief for private enterprise is not untimely in a period of decisive struggle among conflicting ideologies. *The Case for Conservatism* portrays the advantages of capitalism over socialism in a manner understandable to the layman as well as to the student of economics.

The book "is intended as an answer to the propaganda of Marxism . . . and as a contribution to the war for the minds of men that is currently in progress." It examines the major features of socialism and communism, offers a refutation of the theories of Marxism on the inevitable victory of socialism, and defends the traditional free enterprise system as the bulwark of democracy.

Cohen attacks the socialist thesis that individual profits produce economic crisis and wars, and contends that the free-enterprise system is, as in the past, sound and workable. By applying his theories on the nature of economic production and exchange to an actual study of present socioeconomic conditions, he shows that the curve of the world's wealth points steadily upward. Stressing the need for faith in the traditional systems of production, distribution,

and exchange, he predicts their eventual triumph over all other systems.

The book aims to be neither "superscientific," "superstitious," nor "doctrinaire," but rather a commonsense study of everyday human activity. However, it is a matter of judgment, not of fact, as to what constitutes "common sense." The book is well impregnated with a zeal for social righteousness. No student of economics would be as surprised as was Cohen himself, a lawyer, at the revelations to be gained by a little study of the history of economic thought.

OTIS DURANT DUNCAN.

Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.

American Social Insurance. By Domenico Gagliardo. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949. Pp xxiii + 671. \$5.00.

The Gagliardo book is a notable addition to the literature on social insurance. It meets a long felt need for a comprehensive treatment of the social insurance movement in the United States. The presentation of materials is divided into four fields: old age, unemployment, occupational disability, and health. For each of these areas the author has followed a systematic procedure beginning with nature and extent of the problem followed by historical background, then on to the existing legislation and a discussion of operation. A final chapter of the book is devoted to general observations of the whole field, major defects in our programs, and proposed courses of action.

Although the book is a treatise on social insurance it includes description of a number of programs not strictly insurance such as old age assistance and certain medical care programs. The net effect, however, is a strengthening of the report since these programs are closely related to existing insurance programs or form a basis for programs which may emerge. There is considerable detail on the provisions of insurance programs and the intricacies of operation to the point that the book may be of limited use for beginning courses but

should be a most valuable reference work for advanced students. The work is adequately documented both as to quality and recency of references. A commendable feature is that the social insurance programs are traced through the post World War II years and thus offers information of current significance.

The section on health is unique in that Professor Gagliardo has made a careful effort to present the various points of view with respect to proposals for health insurance. The summarization of congressional hearings on the subject is excellent and is, to the knowledge of this reviewer, nowhere else packaged so neatly.

The bibliographies at the close of the book include upwards of 200 titles which are arranged to provide a good cross-section of the materials available in each of the four areas of social insurance discussed in the text. *American Social Insurance* is a book worth acquiring. It is the most useful reference book on social insurance that I have seen.

ROBERT L. MCNAMARA.

University of Missouri.

Toward Freedom from Want. By D. Spencer Hatch. Bombay: Geoffry Cumberlege, Oxford University Press, 1949. Pp. x + 303, illustrations I-XIII. \$3.75.

This is a personal account of the successful technique the author employed in raising the living standards of the poverty-stricken village dwellers in several parts of India and in the area around Camohmila near Topoztlan, Mexico.

The first twenty-five chapters are mainly reprints of the author's earlier works, *Up from Poverty in Rural India* (4th ed. 1938) and *Further Upward in Rural India* (1938). These chapters give a graphic account of the organization and development of the YMCA center at Martandam in south India, its contact and cooperation with government agencies, the nature of its program, and the way in the eighteen years of its

history the center spread to other localities in south India and Ceylon. Chapter XXVI describes Dr. Hatch's experiences in applying the same pattern of service to the Camohmila Center in Mexico.

The book clearly reveals what expert, dynamic leadership, motivated by the religious impulse, can accomplish among the world's most retarded rural masses. The comprehensive and highly coordinated community programs that Dr. Hatch developed through the method of "self-help with intimate, expert counsel" are aimed at enabling rural people to help themselves.

The programs at Martandam and Camohmila are built around experimental-demonstration centers, where through the expert use of local village leadership and local materials readily available to the poorest farmer, the villagers are taught to improve their living conditions by doing it themselves. The programs are aimed primarily at the families in the villages. Following the pattern of the "Five-sided Triangle," they seek to help the villagers' families, spiritually, mentally, physically, socially, and economically.

Both the sociologist and the rural educator will find much of value in this volume. The organization and operation of the centers are excellent illustrations of rural community organization at its best and of progressive education applied in terms of the culture, the genius, and the needs of the average villager's life. The principles of self-help, self-activity, using local facilities in materials and leadership, cooperation, and learning by doing, are sociologically sound. With a highly skilled, friendly, and dynamic leader like Dr. Hatch they can be made the basis of a successful program of reconstruction even in the most undeveloped and neglected rural areas.

This book deserves to be read by all those who are interested in improving the living conditions of impoverished rural people.

MORRIS S. GRETH.

Muhlenberg College.

Leadership and Isolation. Second Edition.

By Helen Hall Jennings. New York: Longmans Green and Company, 1950. Pp. xvii + 349. \$4.00.

A person unacquainted with the first edition of this work may be misled by the title. It is not a philosophy of leadership. The author has planned and carried out an extremely detailed, yet amazingly systematic, sociometric investigation among 400 girls committed by the Children's Courts of the State of New York to the New York State Training School for Girls. To be admitted, the girl must be over 12 and under 16 years of age, of normal intelligence, and appear capable of profiting from the care and training provided by the institution.

This book contains the report of the research as well as valuable contributions to sociometric methodology. The last chapter, entitled "New Directions" is a well developed formulation of additional hypotheses. The reader is left with the idea that everything has not been said on the basic problems raised in the study; but that there is still work to be done. The opportunity is here for other researchers to attach themselves to the basic issues of the investigation. The reviewer considers this to be a highly desirable state of scientific maturity on the part of the author.

"Every community is structured by attraction and rejection growing out of the population's intimate association with one another." Out of this general proposition the author draws the following general problems for analysis: Does negative reaction surpass, equal, or fall below reaction of positive choice? Is either positive choice or negative choice (rejection) a narrowly channeled and not widely spread phenomenon? What is the nature and extent of mutual attractions and rejections? Is there any relation between the amount of positive choice and the amount of negative choice in a community? These questions are incorporated into four criteria of choice: "living;" and/or "working;" and/or "recreation or leisure;" and/or "studying."

From this basic framework numerous other problems are formulated and analyzed in a scholarly and original manner.

For those persons who tend toward the use of statistical procedures in the testing of ideas, there is ample opportunity to study and criticize the application of the more common statistical techniques. There are also many case histories which are not "story-like" but carefully constructed, analytical accounts of characteristic individuals.

The reviewer was somewhat concerned over the fact that much of the empirical analysis and conceptualization was developed within what seemed to be a "sociometric vacuum." That is, there was little attempt to incorporate the ideas and findings of many widely recognized students of society who would fall in the categories of sociologist and social psychologist. The reviewer was constantly asking himself whether the author considered sociometry to be a part of sociology, apart from sociology, or that sociometry is sociology. This point will have to be clarified in the very near future if sociometric research is to find its place in the investigation of human relations.

The sociometric test in itself is a simple research technique. The problem seems to be one of understanding its use. Jennings has wisely stated this idea on page 304 of her work where she suggests that the necessity is not so much for fundamental improvement of the sociometric test itself as for improvement of the sociometric investigator by increasing his sensitivity in regard to what criteria of choice will be most meaningful and motivating to a population.

The author has done an excellent job of applying the technique in the investigation of her problem. But one cannot help but raise some question as to whether the choice process is not over-simplified by attempts to explain it without considering the sociology of its emergence.

The rural sociologist should be especially grateful for Jennings' observations concern-

ing structural differences of groups. She divides groups into two major categories, psychogroups and sociogroups. While the reader may consider the classification a repetition of the primary-secondary classification, it is pointed out that there are differences between the two ideas. Rural sociologists can benefit from a thorough study of this presentation in their search for knowledge which can be transferred into extension techniques.

This book should have a wide audience both in the field of sociology and social work. It ought to be a part of any seminar in the methodology of social research and would make excellent collateral reading for upper class and graduate courses where the small group is emphasized.

ROY C. BUCK.

Pennsylvania State College.

Den inre omflyttningen i Estland (Meddelande från Lunds Universitets Geografiska Institution No. 239). By Edgar Kant. Stockholm: Svenska Geografiska Sällskapet, 1946. Pp. 83-124. (Apply.)

Studier över gardsbefolkningens täthet i förkrigstidens Estland och Lettland jämte några metodologiska frågor (Meddelanden från Lunds Universitets Geografiska Institution No. 274). By Edgar Kant. Stockholm: Svenska Geografiska Sällskapet, 1949. Pp. 171-203. (Apply.)

Quelques problèmes concernant la représentation de la densité des habitations rurales (Lund Studies in Geography. Ser. B. Human Geography No. 2). By Edgar Kant. Stockholm: Royal University of Lund, Department of Geography, 1950. Pp. 9. (Apply.)

Den sociologiska regionen, den sociala tiden och det sociala rummet (Meddelanden från Lunds Universitets Geografiska Institution No. 261). By Edgar Kant. Stockholm: Royal University of Lund, Department of Geography, 1948. (Apply.)

The study of internal migration is based upon residence data for gainfully employed persons from the 1922 and 1934 Census.

Only about one-fifth of a total of 436,000 had changed residence; this, as Kant realizes, does not cover all temporary movements which have occurred between Census years. He points out that in this regard his study differs from this reviewer's study of migration-turnover in German cities. Kant finds that the proportion of in-migrants in per cent of the population of 1922 varies from 148.6% to 9.5%, but not as Howard Woolston has maintained, in positive correlation to the size of cities; rather, the smaller cities had the highest percentage of in-migrants. Kant explains this by referring to the fact that these towns serve as transit stations in the migration from farms to cities. This agrees with the reviewer's own findings and those of Jane Moore. Direct country-city migrants constituted 57.7 per cent of all in-migrants, but the proportion varied between 39.1 per cent and 83.4 per cent; it is generally higher in the upland towns and cities than in the lowland cities, the former being also the region of greater depopulation and migratory mobility of rural population. Areas from which migrants have come are indicated cartographically for selected cities, showing a close coincidence of trade areas and areas of origin of migrants. What Kant has to say about the relation between distance and frequency of migration as well as occupational composition of migrants is worth the attention of demographers in this country. Fortunately there are English headings in Tables and a Summary in English.

The second paper is interesting insofar as it indicates, incidentally, that in Estland the density of farm population stands in inverse relation to soil quality and also to direct rural-urban migration. The main contribution, however, is a discussion of statistical methods to determine correlations between farm size and density of farm population, which tend to be negative. This paper has also been published in French.

The fourth paper is a critical discussion of regional sociology and sociography with special reference to the categories of social

space and social time; while main attention is given to the work of Odum, Vance, Zimmerman, and Sorokin, the article gives a fairly comprehensive survey of the European literature. The reviewer regrets that his own attempts to elaborate Steinmetz's and Tönnies' ideas concerning sociography and its relation to theoretical sociology have escaped the author's attention; he agrees with Kant's postulate that cultural geographers need a firm foothold in the social sciences.

RUDOLF HEBERLE

Louisiana State University.

Methodology of the Social Sciences. By Felix Kaufmann. New York: Oxford University Press, 1949. Pp. x + 272. \$3.50.

Scientific Social Surveys and Research. By Pauline V. Young, with chapters by Calvin F. Schmid. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949. Pp. xxviii + 621. \$4.75.

Both these books are no doubt familiar already to students of sociological methods. Kaufmann's *Methodology* is merely a second printing of a work originally issued in 1944. Its value to the everyday research worker is perhaps questionable, since it in no way comes to grips with concrete problems of observation, interpretation, and synthesis actually faced in research. Whereas the fundamental treatises on method by such writers as Durkheim, Znaniecki, and Sorokin incorporate a keen empirical sense of the sociologically relevant, this work seems to consider social science problems primarily as convenient crucial illustrations for some points in the general philosophy of method.

The task of "methodology" on this approach is the "clarification" and rationalization of scientific procedures. The resolution of current issues of method is accomplished by a logical analysis of the procedural rules already implicitly at work in the ongoing scientific endeavor. Some problems of present interest which are examined in this fashion are: the place of value judgments in empirical science; the relations be-

tween natural and social sciences; the problem of extra-theoretical factors in scientific development as raised by the sociology of knowledge; and the empirical relevance of economic laws. Some philosophical background is required for reading parts of the book. A reader with such background will find it stimulating.

Young's revised textbook is very similar in style to the original version published in 1939, but new chapters have been added on "Basic Principles in Social Research," "Surveys and Research in Present-Day Social Work" (by M. J. Karpf), and "Scaling Techniques in Sociological Research" (by C. F. Schmid). The author has also included ten additional portraits of leaders in social research, from Karl Pearson to Robert Merton, which may or may not be sources of inspiration to neophytes.

The reviewer first encountered this volume as a prescribed text during graduate study. The impression gained there—and reinforced by a consideration of the refurbished product—is that it is quite successful in directing attention to a wide variety of research problems and techniques, and in furnishing some general acquaintance with the literature as a background for serious study. Little more could be expected of a book which tries to cover a range of topics from "minimum essentials" of statistics to a fairly detailed history of the social survey movement. Some of the chapters—notably Schmid's on scaling—do a rather thorough job of cataloging an arsenal of specific techniques; while the outlines for case studies of culture groups, institutions, and communities bog down in a series of ill-digested "suggestive leads" like "What are the prevailing social heritages of the group under study?" None of the discussions, however, offers close technical guidance for the actual prosecution of research in the manner of Parten's recent *Surveys, Polls, and Samples*. The editor (Blumer) to the contrary notwithstanding, this book does not succeed in projecting an "intimate" sense of the use of research

methods in actual study. A course in methods should supplement this text with a generous offering of critical reviews of actual research reports.

OTIS DUDLEY DUNCAN.

University of Wisconsin.

Studies in Applied and Theoretical Social Science at Michigan State College. By Charles P. Loomis. East Lansing: Michigan State College Press, 1950. Pp. vii + 183. \$5.00 (paper).

This book compliments the earlier compilation of Loomis' publications, *Studies of Rural Social Organization in the United States, Latin America and Germany*, released by the same press in 1945. This predecessor contained, either in toto or in abbreviated form, 18 articles written between 1935 and 1945. The current book, *Studies in Applied and Theoretical Social Science*, is composed of 20 writings as they originally appeared either as journal articles or chapters in more extended treatises since 1945 plus the author's presidential address before the Rural Sociological Society (1948) in abbreviated form, and one study, *Factors Related to Voting Behavior and Suicide in the Cities of Pre-War Germany*, prepared especially for this publication. Each of these 22 writings forms a chapter in the present book with Loomis listed as sole author of seven chapters, senior author of ten, and junior author of five. It includes all but the textbook *Rural Social Systems*, and four of Loomis' shorter publications written during the last six years while chairman of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at Michigan State College.

By using the larger 8½ by 11 page and reduced size type via the photo offset process, the publishers have presented, without sacrificing illustrative items, materials generally requiring over 500 conventional format pages.

Although largely a composite of previously published articles, a degree of integration was given this volume by grouping the twenty-two chapters in four parts. The

first, "Theoretical and Background Studies," includes Loomis' concept of rural social systems and a critical review of the theories and methods of Sociometry. Part II consists of eight specific studies in the United States and Canada. Part III reports eight separate studies of Latin American problems of interest to the United States. Part IV is composed of four studies on Germany utilizing data gathered when Loomis was on the staff of the Morale Division of the United States Strategic Bombing Survey. Only one of these studies is directly related to bombing of Germany, the others deal largely with political behavior during the Nazi era and with suicide.

In spite of their heterogeneity the combining of these studies into a single volume makes it easier for the reader to note some facets of Loomis' professional thinking which might otherwise not be so apparent. One is his extensive reliance on sociometric methods, especially the sociometric test and sociogram as tools of sociological and anthropological research. Another is his apparent revulsion against simple dichotomies in favor of continua, most prominent of these being derived from Tönnies and modified into a continuum running from the "Familiistic Gemeinschaft" extreme to "Contractual Gesellschaft." Also apparent are the author's constant efforts towards basing generalizations and action programs on scientifically sound objective findings, his efforts to define social science phenomena in operational terms, and the fact that the social scientist must often partially sacrifice these objectives for lack of resources in time, money or personnel.

MARVIN J. TAVES.

University of Minnesota.

Psychologie des Mouvements Sociaux. By Paul Maucorps. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1950. Pp. 128. 100 fr.

This little volume is No. 425 of a series—What Do I Know?—on the present state of knowledge. The approach for the most part is that of individual social psychology

(behavioristic, gestalt, and psychoanalytic), popularizing for French audiences the work, especially American, on beliefs, attitudes, public opinion, persuasion, propaganda, and sociometry. The most interesting concept, sociologically speaking, is Georges Gurvitch's "microsociology" (contrasted with "macrosociology," not developed here), which complements sociometry and attempts to analyze types of social relationships. Maucorps, following Gurvitch, distinguishes direct or spontaneous sociability from organized or thought-out sociability. The first is divided into (1) sociability by interpenetration or partial fusion in the "we" and (2) sociability by partial opposition between "me," "you," "they," and others, which characterizes not only economic relations but also friendship and love, engendering harmony as well as conflict. Sociability by partial fusion in the "we" has three degrees of intensity, namely, in inverse order of intensity: the mass, the community, and the communion. Sociability may be either active or passive. Sociability by partial opposition has three major orientations: approach, withdrawal, mixed. An active "we" can be uni-functional, multi-functional, or supra-functional. The superstructure of an active "we" can be governed by the principle of domination or by that of collaboration. An active "we" can serve either general or particular interests.

The juxtaposition here of Gurvitch's contribution and that of American social scientists highlights the contrasting approaches of Europeans and Americans, the former emphasizing closely thought-out classification and conceptualization, the latter, empirical observation. As Gurvitch and Maucorps insist, the two are complementary, both can profit by the emphases of the other.

JESSIE BERNARD.

The Pennsylvania State College.

The Cooperative Movement in Negro Communities of North Carolina. By Nathan A. Pitts. Washington, D. C.: The Cath-

olic University of America Press, 1950. Pp. xii + 201. \$2.25.

The present work is a dissertation submitted by the author to the Faculty of the School of Social Science of the Catholic University of America in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

The purpose of this study is to describe the organization and operation of the cooperative movement in Negro communities of North Carolina. The study is primarily concerned with those organizations which have accepted the cooperative principles and practices chartered by the state or federal agencies.

The treatment of the organizations is done in four main parts. In the first part the author explains briefly the general background of the cooperative movement and describes the social and economic status of Negroes in North Carolina. Part II contains a presentation of the organization and development of the types of cooperatives being operated. In part III, an introduction of the cooperative movement among Negroes is presented in terms of a broad framework for the study of social movements in general. The last part contains a summary and recommendations.

Much information is to be found in the appendices. Appendix I contains a short questionnaire. Appendix II includes a program of the workshop on cooperative living. In appendix III a proposed budget of the North Carolina Council of Credit Unions is presented. Appendix IV gives a list of public laws of North Carolina relating to the incorporation, supervision and operation of credit unions. Appendix V contains by-laws of cooperative association. A short bibliography relating to cooperatives is given at the end of the study.

The chief interest to the sociologist in this study is that it provides some case materials which may be useful in an attempt to formulate principles operating in the natural history of social movements.

WALTER R. HARRISON.
Southern University.

The Crime Problem. By Walter C. Reckless. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Pp. ix + 537. \$4.25.

The stated objective of this text is to "bridge the chasm" between academic criminology and practical work in the field of crime. It is designed for use in both in-service training programs and academic courses in criminology.

Reckless deals with the crime problem in four sections: Part I concerns "Facts About Ordinary Crime"; Part II, "Crime As A Business"; Part III, "Affiliated Problems," such as juvenile delinquency, prostitution, alcoholism, etc.; and Part IV, the "Control, Treatment, and Prevention" of crime.

Reckless feels that "the realistic study of behavior which becomes criminal" has been retarded by preoccupation with the causes of crime. Though his formal treatment of crime causation is reduced to a minimum, causes of crime enter into the discussion in a wholly unsystematic fashion. For example, in accounting for differences in categoric risks, Reckless draws on virtually all the current biological, psychological, and sociological theories of crime. The explanation of categoric risk becomes a disguise for the presentation of an unintegrated multiple factor approach to crime. Categories of risk properly should be isolated, interpreted, and tested in the light of a systematic theory of the occurrence of criminal behavior and variations in reporting. In that Reckless fails to integrate his discussion in these terms, the importance of the risk concept for criminology is obscured, and this opportunity for relating academic and practical approaches to crime remains unexploited.

In Part IV, no effort is made to interpret treatment or prevention in the light of any systematic theory of criminal behavior. Only rarely does Reckless allude to the theoretical assumptions which guide current practice or to the historical development of treatment procedures. The effect of current practices on the offender or the probable effect of proposed changes are not adequately

described. Thus, in the absence of an adequate theoretical, historical, or practical perspective, students will be unable to understand or evaluate the relevance of the various official practices discussed. Reckless' inability to close the gap between "town and gown" is particularly evident in this section of the book.

Though the discussion of academic and practical approaches to the crime problem in the same book does not "bridge the chasm," teachers of criminology will find useful material in this text. In particular, the detailed case histories and the interesting but unexploited notion of "behavior sequences" in crime may afford a basis for lively class discussions.

LLOYD E. OHLIN.

Illinois Division of Correction.

They Came in Chains. By J. Saunders Redding. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1950. Pp. 320. \$3.50.

This volume is a popular account of the background and experiences of the American Negro. It is included in *The Peoples of America Series* which, according to the publisher's blurb, "tells the story of the United States in terms of the various population groups who live here and who have shaped the course of our history." The author has won acclaim for two previous literary works, *No Day of Triumph* and *Stranger and Alone*, and demonstrates in the volume under review his remarkable literary skill. Relying heavily upon the research findings of social scientists for much of his account, he succeeds in giving a lyric quality to that which social scientists have related in more prosaic language.

Social scientists will not wish to rely upon the contents of this work, although some of them may wish to read it as literature. Errors of fact and interpretation will be easily and frequently detected. The chief merit of the work, the author's humaneness and imaginary grasp, becomes the foundation of its major weakness—the tendency to generalize from inadequate data and to

make unwarranted preference statements, as shown by the following examples.

In referring to the Negro and the New Deal, the author asserts: "By no means all Negroes became 'Roosevelt men.' In the first place, most of the Negro upper class, like most of the white upper class, remained Republican." (287). This inference is not warranted from our present knowledge of Negro political behavior. In treating the political views of the Negro in the second decade of the present century, the author declares: "But it gave them [Negroes] a sense of political strength to discover that they were the balance of power in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Missouri, and it made it impossible for them ever again to mistake promise for performance" (232). Despite the cries of some intellectuals and politicians, there is little evidence to suggest that Negroes constituted a balance of power in the states mentioned, and even less to suggest that they were "aware" of such a fiction.

The above criticisms may be added to from the author's discussion of leadership, morale, and other related problems. They are mentioned to document the assertion that social scientists will not wish to rely upon the content of the work, except possibly to test the validity for the present of an hypothesis which is made by the author in writing of Negro experiences of a generation ago: "The very core of the Negro community was the pathologically intense desire that the Negro prove himself equal to the white man. This expressed itself in a childish exaggeration of the accomplishments of Negroes, in the exaltation of Negro character, and in an amount of literary whining that called into question the very things the Negro would have the world believe" (209).

In a more general sense, it must be said that the work is sufficiently faithful to the experiences of Negro life to serve as a useful source of information for lay read-

ers, for which audience it is primarily designed.

G. FRANKLIN EDWARDS.

Howard University.

Criminology: A Cultural Interpretation.
Revised Edition. By Donald R. Taft.
New York: The Macmillan Company,
1950. Pp. vii + 704. \$5.50.

In this revision of his original 1942 edition, Taft has rewritten substantial portions of the text, stressing and clarifying his theory of crime as a product of the general culture. He has omitted some of the material on crime detection, and brought the remainder of the book up to date by introducing more recent statistics, research results, and developments in penology and juvenile treatment programs. He has also expanded his discussion of "the criminal nation" with additional material relating war and crime.

Taft's explanation of crime is in terms of a multiple factor approach. With strict adherence to a philosophy of determinism, criminal behavior is viewed as a product of past and present conditions, for which the individual can be held socially accountable but not responsible. Such factors as familial rejection, poverty, alcoholism, emotional instability, criminogenic newspaper stories, racial discrimination, etc. are all regarded as causing crime in some measure. The primary emphasis, however, is on crime as "one form of human exploitation, largely resulting from other forms of exploitation not defined as crime." Certain values in our American culture such as materialism, individualism, faith in law, disrespect for some law, etc. result in accepted exploitative behavior. Whether exploitative behavior will take the form of "no-crime," "white-collar crime," or "no-collar crime," depends on the extent of an individual's "differential association" with the various sub-cultures of our society.

Criminologists who regard certain types of human activity, including criminal acts, as a creative experience in problem solving,

will not be in sympathy with Taft's philosophical determinism. Of particular importance, however, is Taft's inability to picture the process by which the multiple causes of crime interact to produce criminal behavior. There is no distinction between necessary and sufficient, proximate or remote causes. It is difficult to perceive the role played by various psychological and social influences in criminal acts. Taft's theory of crime offers no clue as to the central problems on which correctional effort may most profitably be focussed. As a consequence, his recommendations for control, treatment, and prevention of crime appear unintegrated and diffused.

Despite these defects, this text offers a sympathetic and imaginative picture of the criminal offender, his attitudes, criminal career, and response to current programs of treatment. In general, the changes introduced in this revised edition have improved the quality of the original text.

LLOYD E. OHLIN.

Illinois Division of Correction.

Totale Landbouwwetenschap. Een Cultuurphilosophische Beschouwing Over Landbouw en Landbouwwetenschap Als Mogelijke Basis Voor Vernieuwing Van Het Landbouwkundig Hoger Onderwijs. By Dr. W. J. Timmer. Groningen-Djakarta: J. B. Wolters, 1949. Pp. 306. f 12.50.

About two years ago the author, who is a member of the agricultural college at the University of Indonesia, was asked to prepare a memorandum for the revision of curricula in agricultural studies. He found that any such proposals "would hang in the air" unless they were founded on a methodological and philosophical reconsideration of the entire field. Thus he came to write the present book. It consists of two parts: a critical survey of the various disciplines and a program for the reform of university instruction in the agricultural sciences. The author aims at a synthesis or integration of the scientific, technical, managerial, eco-

nomics, and sociological studies concerning agriculture and rural life. He appears to be familiar not only with the literature of rural sociology but also with the general sociological and sociographic literature.

RUDOLF HEBERLE.

Louisiana State University.

Sterilization in North Carolina: A Sociological and Psychological Study. By Moya Woodside. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1950. Pp. xv + 219. \$2.50.

Sterilization is too frequently viewed on the level of emotion and in terms of bias built on misinformation. Any carefully constructed and conscientiously executed survey of a going sterilization program is therefore welcome. Miss Woodside's study is likely to be especially useful since it not only presents in detail an account of the present North Carolina law, under which more than 2,000 persons have been sterilized since 1933, but evaluates sterilization in terms of personal attitudes, interpersonal relations, and regional culture. The consequent insights have applicability quite apart from any local area.

The author clearly favors a dynamic sterilization program and does not profess to present in detail the arguments of the program's opponents. Yet, she is in no degree guilty of what Blacker (*Voluntary Sterilization*, Oxford, 1934) has termed "an intemperate advocacy" of sterilization as a cure-all. Rather, she views this eugenics measure as "one part of social medicine and as an adjunct to other forms of planning for individual and general good." (p. 161) An attempt to document this point of view is made (successfully, in the judgment of this reviewer), by relating the innovation of sterilization to a cultural frame of reference and by using comparative materials from the limited number of other studies in this field and documentary materials from medical men and public welfare workers and from a non-random group

of 48 married women on whom the operation had been performed.

Sociologists will find this an interesting study of the diffusion of an innovation which, in many respects, is non-harmonious with the conservative rural culture which characterizes the region. Traditional and fundamentalist beliefs have served as strong resisting forces; but these appear to have been breached primarily on the level of anticipated personal gains, particularly relief from both physical and economic anxieties. Demographers will find materials relevant to questions of differential fertility and population policy. Social workers and welfare officials will find cogent argument for an extension of a sterilization program, and also—it can be hoped—for a realization that the exercise of power demands both understanding and responsibility.

VINCENT H. WHITNEY.

Brown University.

BOOK NOTES

By Otis Durant Duncan

Farm Mechanization, Progress and Economic Problems. By A. M. Aycock. Washington. Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations, 1950. Pp. vii + 88. \$1.50.

The report shows world trends in the adoption of factory-produced farm machinery. Besides numerous pictures there are 33 useful statistical tables.

Cooperative and Fundamental Education (Monographs on Fundamental Education-II). By Maurice Colombain. Paris: UNESCO (New York: Columbia University Press) 1950. Pp. 171. \$0.60.

The monograph deals with the problem of thrift and credit, the problem of purchasing; problems of farmers, woodcutters, and fishermen; problems of wage-earners; of industrial, cottage, and craft workers; health and hygiene; cooperatives for the reform of customs, and cooperative educa-

tion and training of leaders in various countries.

Basic Problems of Plantation Labour. Committee on Work on Plantations. First Session, Bandoeng, 1950. Geneva and Washington: International Labour Office, 1950. Pp. iv + 166. \$1.00 (paper).

This report deals with the background and nature of plantations, recruiting and engagement of labor, regulation of employment, conditions of work, employment of women and children, wages, living conditions, health and social security, education, labor relations, and labor problems common to plantation workers. A digest of this report would make an excellent core for a much needed chapter in the next textbook to be written on rural sociology.

Planning Rural Community School Buildings. By Frank W. Cyr and Henry H. Linn. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. Pp. 122. \$3.75.

This publication is sponsored by the National Council of Chief State School Officers. It contains numerous floor plans and front elevations for rural school buildings of modern types. It runs through the general problem of how to plan and build school buildings in order to provide for the richest possible uses of the physical plant. Superintendents of schools and boards of education will find it highly useful.

Social Disorganization, 3rd ed. By Mabel A. Elliott and Francis E. Merrill. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950. Pp. xiv + 748. \$4.50.

Since the appearance of the first edition in 1934, this book has been a leader in its field. The second edition, 1941, while maintaining the quality of the first, did not represent as great a relative advance in sociological thinking as its predecessor. Its critics felt that it was somewhat "over written." In addition to a changed format, for which the publishers are responsible, the third edition telescopes several chap-

ters in Parts II and III in order to gain space for the new chapters appearing in Parts IV and V. The new chapters include religious minorities, racial minorities, and totalitarianism. However, the book has been revised throughout. While this book differentiates between mobility and migration, a commendable trait, the discussions of these two subjects are quite general and are independent of vast bodies of specific research in these fields. The text centers in urban and small town society, elaborating very little upon manifestations of social disorganization in strictly agricultural areas. Textbook writers in general should learn some day that a well-focused picture of society cannot be had without due consideration of agricultural peoples. After all, they are an important part of the total social pattern. With whatever limitations it may have, this third edition will likely prove to be a successful bid to keep *Social Disorganization* close to the topmost rank of the "social pathologies" both factually and pedagogically.

Let's Celebrate Christmas (A reissue). By Horace J. Gardner. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1950. Pp. x + 212. \$2.50.

A handbook on Christmas Celebrations suitable for children's groups, including games, songs, directions for parties, recipes, plays, etc. School teachers, mothers' club chairmen, PTA organizations, youth groups of churches, and numerous community leaders will find useful suggestions in it for a wide variety of Christmas observances.

Leading a Sunday Church School. By Ralph D. Heim. Philadelphia: The Muhlenberg Press, 1950. Pp. xi + 368. \$4.75.

This book is designed to fill a practical need in religious education and is designed as a textbook for college, seminary, and training-school students as well as a handbook for ministers, directors, and superintendents of Sunday Schools.

Sites of the Reserve Phase, Pine Lawn Valley, Western New Mexico (Fieldiana: Anthropology, Vol. 38, No. 3, Oct. 1950). By Paul S. Martin and John B. Rinaldo. Chicago: Chicago Natural History Museum, Pub. 651, 1950. Pp. 403-577. Apply. (Paper.)

This is an archeological study conducted between the San Francisco Mountains to the west and the Saliz Mountains to the east, in the Apache National Forest, Catron County, New Mexico, the nearest town being Reserve, New Mexico. The Reserve Phase is dated roughly at about A. D. 1000 \pm 100. As in publication 645, this study shows numerous photographs of archeological "finds" in the area. In general, the indications are that an agricultural economy existed among the prehistoric groups, but there is evidence of a late shift from seed gathering toward hunting. The extent of this shift cannot be estimated.

Turkey Foot Ridge Site: A Mongolian Village, Pine Lawn Valley, Western New Mexico (Fieldiana: Anthropology, Vol. 38, No. 2, August 1950). By Paul S. Martin and John B. Rinaldo. Chicago: Chicago Natural History Museum, Pub. 645, 1950. Pp. 237-396. Apply. (Paper.)

This is an archeological study conducted in the Apache National Forest, Catron County, New Mexico. From present knowledge it appears that the history of the Valley extends from about 1500 B. C. to approximately 1300 A. D. when it was abandoned by the people of the Tularosa culture. The text is composed mainly of photographs of artifacts some of which indicate surprisingly advanced design and skill in execution. The main value of the study for rural sociology is that it indicates something of the pre-Columbian culture of the aborigines of the North American continent. This culture was far more complex than one would ever suppose after reading what the school histories and geographies have said on the subject.

Las Clases Sociales. By Lucio Mendieta Y Nuñez (foreword by Pitirim A. Sorokin). Mexico, D. F.: Instituto De Investigaciones Sociales, Universidad Nacional, 1947. Pp. 149. \$3.00 (Mex.).

A sociological essay dealing with the concept of social class, characteristics of social classes, the social influences of class, and the dynamics of classes and groups.

Boletín de Estadística Peruana (Año ix, No. 2. Abril-Junio, 1948). Lima: Ministerio de Hacienda Y Comercio, 1948. Pp. 55. Free.

Boletín de Estadística Peruana (Año ix, No. 3, Julio-Setiembre, 1948). Lima: Ministerio de Hacienda Y Comercio, 1948. Pp. 67. Free.

Both bulletins give statistics on climatology, hydrography, population, vital statistics, transportation, communication, public health, production and consumption, domestic commerce, and international trade.

The Social Welfare Forum: Proc. 77th Nat'l Conf. Soc. Work 1950. New York: Columbia University Press, 1950. Pp. xvii + 344. \$4.75.

This volume contains the papers given before the general sessions of the 1950 National Conference of Social Work and five additional papers given at section meetings. The Conference theme was, "Opportunity, Security, Responsibility: Democracy's Objectives." The sheer bigness of the National Conference of Social Work, not to mention the vastness of the scope of its program, is overwhelming. Rural sociologists will be interested especially in the discussions on expanded social insurance, the welfare state, the quest for economic security, and health.

Social Work in the Current Scene, 1950: Selected papers, 77th Nat'l Conf. Soc. Work. New York: Columbia University Press, 1950. Pp. x + 389. \$4.75.

This volume is a companion to the Proceedings of the National Conference of So-

cial Work, and includes 34 papers that were read in the section meetings of the Conference. The Conference plans to put into effect a long range publication plan in 1951, for which it should be commended. Other professional societies might well consider a similar plan. A detailed digest of the papers published in this volume is impossible for lack of space. Suffice it to say that their quality is definitely superior to that observed in similar papers a few years previous. Still, the subjects are treated in a rather general manner, and further improvement could be made by giving more specific attention to various groups toward which the major part of social work must be directed.

Problems in the Collection and Comparability of International Statistics: Papers presented at the Round Table on International Statistics, 1948. New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1949. Pp. 165. \$0.50 (Paper).

The papers in this collection deal mainly with statistics on demography, migration, health, labor, family income, and related topics. Each contributor is a recognized authority in his field.

Population Census Methods: Population Studies No. 4. By Population Division. Lake Success: United Nations, 1949. Pp. xii + 197. \$2.00 (Paper).

The lack of information about the populations of various countries and the inadequacy of existing population statistics prompted the preparation of this volume. The treatment centers in twelve recommended subjects; total population, sex, age, marital status, place of birth, citizenship (legal nationality), mother tongue, education, fertility, economic characteristics, urban and rural population, and households. There are 41 tables. The volume should prove valuable to all students of population.

Freedom to Serve: Equality of Treatment and of Opportunity in the Armed Services (A Report). By The President's Com-

mittee. Washington: U. S. Govt. Print. Off. (Supt. of Docs.), 1950. Pp. xii + 82. \$0.25.

The committee found that inequality contributes to inefficiency, and concludes that equality of treatment and opportunity in the armed forces will strengthen the nation.

Republica del Peru, Censo Nacional de Poblacion de 1940. Vols. VII, VIII, and IX, 1948. (not paged continuously). Free.

Vol. VII contains statistics for the Departments of Arequipa, Apurimac, Moquegua, and Tacna; Vol. VIII includes the Departments of Cusco and Puno; and Vol. IX contains the Censuses of the Departments of Loreto, Amazonas, San Martin, and Madre de Dios.

Rural Prospect. By Mark Rich. New York: Friendship Press, 1950. Pp. viii + 183.

The author of this little volume is Secretary of Town and Country Work of the American Baptist Home Mission Society. The book approaches its task from the point of view of the community, the locality, and the primary group setting (most people say "community" when they mean "neighborhood," perhaps). Anyway, the locality group rather than "the Church" is the point of application. Soil fertility, stable tenure, the people themselves, and the agencies through which rural people work are crucial elements in carrying on rural religion as an organized behavior pattern. A detailed reading of this small book will not be a waste of time.

Charcoal and Charcoal Burners. By Emile and Fritz A. Toepperwein. Boerne, Texas: The Highland Press, 1950. Pp. 61. \$3.00.

This is a unique little book about a plain and simple mode of life with plenty of hard dirty work. Its locale is in the Guadalupe Valley, Kendall County, Texas. Very few data on charcoal burning exist anywhere, although it is an occupation suited to the

agricultural mode of life. The people engaging in this enterprise were originally German farmers who came to Texas as early as 1850. The preferred wood for charcoal is the mountain cedar (*Juniperus Mexicana Spreng*). It is light brown, close-grained, and can be burned either green or dry. Charcoal from it gives an even heat, causes no smoke, and leaves no ashes. A less desirable wood is cypress. Oak, especially live oak and post oak, is preferred by those wanting a slow burning coal, such as tailor shops. The slower the wood chars the better and harder the charcoal will be. Men, women, and children all alike can help with the work of charcoal burning. The charcoal burners are not interested in their ancestry, but together they comprise a powerful breed, Germans, Negroes, Mexicans, New Yorkers, Arkansawyers, and all. This is a poor man's work, but it is a sure income when crops fail. Read the book and like it.

International Survey of Social Security (Studies and Reports, new series No. 23). Unsigned. Geneva: International Labour Office, 1950. Pp. v + 236. \$1.50 (order from International Labor Office, Washington Branch, 1825 Jefferson Place, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Comparative analysis of national laws, scope of social security, definition of contingencies and provision of benefits, organization, and financial provisions. A comprehensive report showing tabular comparisons and condensed descriptive summaries of social security provision in various nations.

Manual of Civilization. Unsigned. New York: The William-Frederick Press, 1949. Pp. 133. \$2.50.

Freddie. By C. Umhau Wolf. Columbus, Ohio. The Wartburg Press, 1948. Pp. 31. Apply.

Illustrated child's book dramatizing interracial toleration.

NEWS NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Edited by Harold F. Kaufman

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Alabama Polytechnic Institute. Robert T. McMillan has been appointed part-time professor of research to conduct studies of farm mechanization and housing in Alabama.

The American University. Robert T. Bower, formerly associated with the Bureau of Applied Social Research at Columbia University, has been appointed director of the Bureau of Social Science Research here.

Berea College. Roscoe Giffin is conducting a socioeconomic study of a relatively isolated Kentucky valley. An important phase of this study is the determination of the influence of a mountain settlement school on the surrounding population, and a consideration of the changes which are in prospect as a consequence of new roads and the opening of a large coal mining enterprise within a few miles of the valley. The interview work was done during the summer of 1950.

Bucknell University. Richard E. Du Wors, former head of the Department of Sociology, Mount Union, Ohio, has been appointed Professor of Sociology and Chairman of the Department of Sociology. He assumes the position formerly held by Meyer Nimkoff who is now head of the Department of Sociology at Florida State University.

Columbia University. Sloan Wayland has been promoted from instructor to assistant professor, effective July 1. Professor Wayland will teach the basic course in rural sociology in the summer and offer courses in community organization, population and the family during the academic year. An 82 page summary of Professor Wayland's study "Social Patterns of Farming," has been published by the Columbia University Seminar on Rural Life.

Cornell University. W. A. Anderson returned in January from Taiwan (Formosa)

and Japan where for four months he studied the Taiwan Farmers' Association and the Japanese cooperatives. He prepared a report which has been published in English, Chinese, and Japanese, for the Joint Commission of Rural Reconstruction of ECA and the Provincial Department of Agriculture and Forestry, recommending changes in the operation of the Farmers' Association. The Provincial Farmers' Association presented him with a gold medal for the work with these organizations.

Glenn A. Bakkum, head of the Department of Sociology at Oregon State College, served as visiting professor during the first term in the absence of Professor Anderson. Professor Bakkum was awarded a Fulbright grant to go as visiting lecturer in Rural Sociology to the American University in Cairo, Egypt, for the second term of 1950-51.

Howard E. Thomas has returned from his leave of absence in Colorado where he was studying the seasonal agricultural labor situation for the Governor's Committee on Migrant Workers. James R. White, who, as Research Assistant for the Institute of Adult Education, recently completed his graduate work at Columbia University, has joined the extension staff of the department. Miss Blanche Armstrong joined the staff on October 1, 1950, as extension specialist in rural health. Robert C. Clark resigned in September to accept a position at the University of Wisconsin.

Emory University. The Seventh Annual Town and Country School for Pastors will be held from August 7 to 23. The School is non-sectarian and its basic purpose is to inspire and equip religious workers for better service in town and country churches. This year the theme of the School is "Church and Community Improvement," with special emphasis upon the work of the church in rural communities. This theme will be the focus of a "Workshop in Church and Community Planning and Improvement" directed

by Griscom Morgan, Director of Community Service, Yellow Springs, Ohio.

The three courses to be taught are (1) *The Rural Family*, by Shirley Greene, Agricultural Relations Secretary of the Council of Social Action of the Congregational Christian Church, Merom, Indiana, (2) *Agriculture Today*, by James W. Sells, Extension Secretary of the Southeastern Jurisdictional Council, and a staff of agricultural experts; (3) *Evangelistic Preaching*, by G. Ray Jordan, Professor of Homiletics at the Candler School of Theology.

Florida State University. J. J. O'Connell, M.D., Diplomat, American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology, has been appointed to the staff of the School of Social Welfare, as Professor of Psychiatry and psychiatrist at the Human Relations Institute. Dr. O'Connell has had clinical, hospital and teaching experience in Canada, where he was psychiatric consultant to the RCAF during World War II.

Garrett Biblical Institute. The Interdenominational School for Rural Leaders is to be held during the first term of summer school, June 18 to July 20. The staff this year will include Carl Malone, Agricultural Economist of Iowa State College, and Harold F. Kaufman, Rural Sociologist at Mississippi State College, in addition to the regular Garrett faculty. Last year's total enrollment came to 61; sixteen different states, three foreign countries, as well as thirteen different denominations were represented.

Iowa State College. Robert Dimit is on leave to study the diffusion of farm management and family living practices in the T.V.A. area. He is especially interested in the function of demonstrations.

The first report on the research on co-operatives was published in March as Research Bulletin 279. The bulletin was entitled, "Agricultural Cooperatives in Iowa: Farmers' Opinions and Community Relations," and George Blea, Donald Fessler and Ray Wakeley were the authors.

University of Maryland. William A. DeHart was added to the staff of the Department of Sociology and has been dividing his time between extension activities and research. He is participating in studies concerning rural youth in connection with the impact of population expansion in rural areas surrounding Baltimore and Washington, D. C.

A population bulletin is also being prepared on the characteristics and trends of the population of Maryland.

Michigan State College. Arrangements have been completed for a grant to the Social Research Service of \$28,060 from the Health Information Foundation to help finance an intensive analysis of the social processes involved when a community makes a self-study of its health needs and programs. The project will be carried on in a mid-west city of 10 to 20 thousand in population and its surrounding trade areas. Members of the Social Research Service committee responsible for the study are: J. Allan Beegle, Wilbur Brookover, Duane L. Gibson, Charles R. Hoffer, John B. Holland, Paul A. Miller, Orden Smucker, David G. Steinicke, John F. Thaden, and Christopher Sower, Chairman.

Charles P. Loomis, now on sabbatical leave at the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, Turrialba, Costa Rica, will return in June. Work of the Area Research Center in Latin America financed by the Carnegie Corporation, Michigan State College, Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, the USDA and SSRC will continue. Technical assistance funds provided under the Point IV program are available to the Area Research Center through recent arrangements with the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations of the USDA cooperating with the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences. Some opportunities are available for graduate students to conduct research in Latin American in the Area Research Center program.

Ohio State University. Wade Andrews formerly of Michigan State College has been

appointed Assistant Professor of Rural Sociology and Research Assistant in the Agricultural Experiment Station.

A. R. Mangus delivered a lecture on "Social Science Research in Mental Health" before the staff of the Langley Porter Mental Hygiene Clinic in San Francisco in February. He consulted with various persons on this subject at this time.

Oklahoma A. and M. College. Robert A. Rohwer, Assistant Professor of Rural Sociology, resigned March 1, 1951, to begin farming near Paullina, Iowa.

Pennsylvania State College. John A. Hostetter has recently completed a bibliography of source materials pertaining to the Old Order Amish Mennonites.

University of Rhode Island. The name of this institution was changed in March from Rhode Island State College to University of Rhode Island. The name and organization of the Department of Sociology, which includes both general and rural, remains the same.

PRIVATE RESEARCH ORGANIZATIONS

Carnegie Corporation. Northwestern University was recently granted \$10,000 to further development of the new joint introductory course in anthropology, psychology, and sociology. The course, entitled "An Introduction to the Sciences of Human Behavior," is under the joint direction of Kimball Young, Department of Sociology; Robert Seashore, Department of Psychology; and Melville Herskovits, Department of Anthropology. It is designed to serve as a broad liberal arts course and at the same time as a prerequisite to advanced courses in any of the three disciplines involved.

The Social Science Research Council was granted \$130,000 for continued support of their program of area training fellowships and travel grants. The grants are to provide a period of field study for highly qualified specialists on foreign areas.

Community Service, Inc. The Eighth Annual Conference on the Small Community is to be held in Yellow Springs, Ohio, July 1-4, with the theme "The Values by which Communities Live." Among sociologists planning to attend are John Given, University of Kentucky, Carl Taylor, U.S.D.A., and Leonard Schoff.

Arthur E. Morgan was leader of a community conference for Carroll County, Georgia, on March 7 and 8, sponsored by the Carroll Service Council and the Veterans of Foreign Wars of Carrollton. On March 26-30, Mr. Morgan served as leader of a community conference in Dufferin County, Ontario. This conference was characterized by a minimum of professional social workers and dominance of businessmen, farmers, ministers, physicians and housewives.

Community Service staff members assisted in discussion of small community economics at the annual conference of the Rural Life Association held March 29-31 at Wilmington College, Ohio.

Council for Social Action, Congregational Christian Churches. This department has recently adopted and published, on recommendation of its Agricultural Relations group, five Agricultural Policy Statements. These are: (1) Production, Price and Income Policy; (2) Natural Resources Conservation and Development; (3) Low Income Families in Agriculture; (4) Seasonal Agricultural Workers; and (5) Agricultural Cooperatives.

Group Farming Research Institute, Inc. Henrik F. Infield is directing a field study of the French and West European communities during the spring and early summer of this year. The study, which will make use of a set of research devices developed by the Institute in former studies, will investigate techniques of social evaluation. Mrs. Claire Huchet Bishop will assist Professor Infield in the investigation. She is the recipient of the Institute's grant-in-aid for 1951, and is the author of "All Things Common," a book based on her visit last year to some thirty of the communities.

Social Research Institute. (Oslo, Norway) The Institute has offered a prize of 10,000 Norwegian Kroner for the best paper on the relevance of research to the problems of peace. The papers to be submitted will be expected to include a theoretical as well as a functional clarification of the problems. The judges will be Mrs. Alva Myrdal, Director of the Social Science Department of UNESCO, Daniel Katz, University of Michigan, and Arne Naess, University of Oslo. Papers should be submitted in English or French to the Institute for Social Research, Kronprinsensgt, 5, Oslo, Norway, before April 1, 1952.

GOVERNMENT AGENCIES

President's Commission on Migratory Labor. Robert C. Jones will spend the summer months in Ecuador as a special consultant to the government of that country on rural community development programs. He and his wife, Ingeborg H. Jones, recently had a paper, "Development of Inter-American Cooperation in the Social Sciences," published by UNESCO.

United Nations Education Service. The UN announces the creation of an Education Service. The function of this service is to provide information to teachers about the United Nations and other international activities. It is to provide material on successful classroom practices followed by schools in the United States and other countries. The service also offers direct assistance through correspondence, arrangements to visit the UN, advice in planning conferences, and information on teacher exchange.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Harold B. Allen, Director of Education of the Near East Foundation in New York, has been appointed leader of a UNESCO mission now conducting research in three villages—two in Egypt and one in Iraq. The purpose of this study is to develop simple textbooks, and other reading matter, films, filmstrips and other educational materials for literary training

in Arabic-speaking countries. It is in cooperation with campaigns already begun by the governments of these two countries to raise living standards. Results of the mission will be analyzed at a seminar in the Near East next November. Its ultimate objective is the establishment of a permanent center for teacher training and the production of educational materials in the Near East.

CONFERENCES

International Conference and Seminar on Comparative Social Research in Northern European Countries. This conference will be called by the Oslo Institute of Social Research to begin in September 1951 and last approximately three months. It will focus on the problems of comparative social research in Northern European countries. Among American participants will be Daniel Katz of the University of Michigan. One social scientist from each country other than Norway will be selected. Participants will receive their travel expenses and a stipend at the salary level of a Norwegian Professor.

National Training Laboratory in Group Development. The first session of the laboratory will be held in Bethel, Maine, from June 17 to July 6. The second session will be from July 15 to August 3.

Southern Conference on Gerontology. This conference devoted to The Problems of America's Aging Population was held at the University of Florida on March 19 and 20. In attendance were approximately 100 persons professionally interested in the subject drawn largely from Florida and the other southern states. The three principal sessions of the conference were devoted to the demographic, biological and psychological and social and economic aspects of the subject, respectively. Among the major papers presented at the conference were "Trends in Number, Proportion, and Geographic Distribution of the Aged" by Warren S. Thompson of the Scripps Foundation

for Population Research, Oxford, Ohio; "The Migration of the Aged" by T. Lynn Smith of the University of Florida; and "The Retired Population of a Florida Community" by Irving L. Webber of the Florida State Improvement Commission. Plans are being made for a second conference on the same subject to be held in Gainesville in the spring of 1952.

Southern Sociological Society. Rudolph Heberle of Louisiana State University was elected president of the Southern Sociological Society at its recent meeting April 27 and 28 in Atlanta. Other elected officers were Mildred Mell, Agnes Scott College, first vice-president, Margaret Bristol, Florida State University, second vice-president, and Robert Kutak, University of Louisville, secretary-treasurer.

The program was featured by sections on the teaching of family relations courses, social work and public welfare, social psychology, community development, sociological research, and contributed papers. H. C. Brearley, Peabody College, was president of the Society during the past year.

BETSEY PRYOR CASTLEBERRY

(June 3, 1910-February 28, 1951)

In the death of Betsey Castleberry rural sociology loses a highly capable worker. Born at Kennett, Dunklin County, Missouri, she was always in close touch with rural life. After two years at Christian College, she enrolled at the University of Missouri, receiving the B.S. degree in 1932. In 1933 she married John M. Castleberry, and shortly before his death in 1941 she began graduate work at Louisiana State University, completing the M.A. degree in 1942. After a period of employment, she returned to that institution to continue her graduate work in 1947. In 1948 she went to Michigan State College, completing her residence study and her preliminary examination for the Ph.D. degree in August, 1950, just at the onset of her final prolonged illness during which her sociological interests waned only as life itself deserted her.

Mrs. Castleberry taught for three years in junior high schools of Arkansas and Missouri. For about six years she devoted her life to homemaking, resuming her studies in the fall of 1940. Her rural sociological career began in earnest when she joined the Southwestern Land Tenure Project late in 1942 as statistical analyst. Her work in that capacity took her to Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Texas. In 1944, she became a field worker for the Bureau of Agricultural Economics (U.S. D.A.) working on the Program Surveys then under way, during which time she traveled extensively in the Atlantic Seaboard states. In 1946-47 she was professor of sociology at Winthrop College, returning to Louisiana State University as a fellow in sociology in the fall of 1947. In 1948 she went to Michigan State College as a teaching and research fellow in sociology, a position she held until August, 1950, at which time she was appointed head of the department of sociology at Centre College. Her broken health prevented her from entering upon the duties of that position. During the last ten years of her life she made wide contacts throughout a large part of the nation, and her influence in the circles of her acquaintance became great.

Mrs. Castleberry's research centered upon such subjects as land tenure, the farm family, and rural social organization. She was particularly proficient as field worker, statistical analyst, and engineer of public relations involved in research. She published little under her own name, but more than a score of publications on tenure problems, levels of living, and farm population movements in the Southwest bear marks of her labors. For her doctorate she had planned to study certain social aspects of the textile industry. In all respects her research work was far above mill run average. Undoubtedly, she would have set a high mark had she been given the full benefit of the normally productive years of life. One often wonders if the cost of Ph.D.'s in terms of human life is not too high, and if its compensations are not too limited in proportion thereto.

Besides her daughter, Sue Nelle, Mrs. Castleberry leaves her parents, Mr. and Mrs. Herbert Pryor, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. Mr. Pryor, it will be recalled, was for several years before his recent retirement a member of the field staff of the Division of Farm Population and Rural Life (B.A.E.). He is well known to rural sociologists, especially in the southern parts of the United States.

OTIS DURANT DUNCAN.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS

to the

BY-LAWS OF THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

We, the undersigned active members of the Rural Sociological Society, propose the following amendments to Article IV of the By-Laws regarding elections as published in the journal, *RURAL SOCIOLOGY*, December, 1950, page 400.

(1) Change "before November first" to read "two months before the annual meeting."

(2) Change "November fifteenth" to read "six weeks before the annual meeting."

(3) Change "November thirtieth" to read "one month before the annual meeting."

(4) Add a sentence at the end of Article IV to read, "the new officers shall assume office immediately following each annual meeting."

We also propose that Article VII of the Constitution be clarified by dropping the word, "President" from the first line.

4-17-51

LELAND B. TATE

B. L. HUMMEL

C. HORACE HAMILTON

SELZ C. MAYO

ROBERT A. POLSON

THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

1951 ANNUAL MEETING

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, WIS., SEPTEMBER 2-4, 1951

And Joint Sessions with

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

SHERATON HOTEL, CHICAGO, ILL., SEPTEMBER 5-7, 1951

Sunday, September 2nd

3:00 p.m. Registration

7:00 p.m. Business Meeting

8:00 p.m. Research Methods

Presiding—A. R. Mangus, Ohio State University

1. A Critical Methodological Appraisal of Current Rural Sociological Research

Marvin Taves, University of Minnesota and Neal Gross, Harvard University

2. Ad Hoc Committee Report on Methodology

Discussants

Monday, September 3rd

8:30 a.m. Studies in the Adoption of Farm and Homemaking Practices

Presiding:

1. The Use of Scale Analysis in a Study of the Differential Adoption of Homemaking Practices

Helen Abell, Cornell University

2. Diffusion of Innovations in Farm and Home Practices as an Area of Sociological Research

Herbert F. Lionberger, University of Missouri

Discussants: Lee Coleman, University of Kentucky
Eugene A. Wilkening, North Carolina State College

8:30 a.m. Ad Hoc Committee Report on Social Stratification

Presiding: Carl C. Taylor

An Approach to the Study of Social Stratification in Rural Society
Committee: Harold F. Kaufman, Mississippi State College
Otis D. Duncan, University of Wisconsin
Neal Gross, University of Minnesota
W. H. Sewell, University of Wisconsin

Discussants: James Brown, University of Kentucky
Robert McMillan, Alabama Polytechnical Institute
Allen Beegle, Michigan State College

10:30 a.m. Community Studies

Presiding: Sigurd Johansen, New Mexico State College

The Relation of Identification to the Structure and Functions of a
Community—Roy Buck, Pennsylvania State College
The Development of a Scale for Measuring Community Solidarity—
Donald R. Fessler, Iowa State College
A Community Approach to Soil Conservation—C. L. Folse, University
of Illinois

Discussants: D. L. Gibson, Michigan State College
Frank Alexander, TVA
Wilson Longmore, USDA

10:30 a.m. Ad Hoc Committee Report

Presiding:

Afternoon free for recreation

7:00 p.m. Business Meeting

8:00 p.m. Potential Contributions of Sociological Research to Extension Programs

Presiding: M. E. John, Penn State College

Paper sponsored by the Extension Committee

Discussants: Howard W. Beers, University of Kentucky
Ed Losey, Purdue University
Frank Alexander, TVA
Douglas Ensminger, Office of Foreign Agricultural Rela-
tions
Paul A. Miller, Michigan State College
George Hill, University of Wisconsin

Tuesday, September 4th

8:30 a.m. Acculturation of Ethnic Groups in American Society

Presiding: Donald G. Hay, BAE

Acculturation of Texas-Mexicans in Wisconsin

Bert Ellenbogen, University of Wisconsin

Eduardo Hamuy, University of Chile

Adjustment Patterns of Ethnicity to the Large Society

E. K. Francis, University of Notre Dame

Discussants: Olen Leonard, Vanderbilt University

B. J. Prozedpelski, Associate County Agent, Stevens Point,
Wis.

8:30 a.m. Studies in Social Change

Presiding: Howard W. Beers, University of Kentucky

Changing Interpersonal Relations in Southern Agricultural Systems

Alvin L. Bertrand, Louisiana State University

Persistence and Change of Local Values in Two New England
Communities

Richard E. DuWors, Bucknell University

The Strategy of Change and Point Four
 Charles P. Loomis, Michigan State College
 Discussants: Harold A. Pederson, Mississippi State College
 Lowry Nelson, University of Minnesota

10:30 a.m. Studies in the Development of Consensus

Presiding: C. Horace Hamilton, North Carolina State College
 The Process of Decision Making Within the Context of Community Organization
 Paul A. Miller, Michigan State College
 How Consensus Develops
 Henry W. Riecken, Harvard University
 Discussants:

2:00 p.m. Population

Presiding: Homer Hitt, Louisiana State University
 1. Analysis of Migration from Farms in the Corn Belt and the Cotton Belt
 Donald J. Bogue, Scripps Foundation
 2. The Results of the New Census Definition of "Rural" and "Urban"
 Henry Sheldon, Bureau of Census
 3. Methodological Problems in Analyzing Rural-Urban Migration in Wisconsin, 1940-50
 Margaret J. Hagood, USDA
 Emmitt F. Sharp, University of Wisconsin
 Discussants: Conrad Taeuber, Census Bureau
 Ray Wakeley, Iowa State College

JOINT SESSION WITH THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY, SHERATON HOTEL, CHICAGO, ILL.

Wednesday, September 5th

1:30 p.m. Presiding: Neal Gross, Harvard University
 Similarities and Differences in Rural and Urban Life
 Louis Wirth, University of Chicago
 Discussants: Lowry Nelson, University of Minnesota
 William H. Sewell, University of Wisconsin
 Carl C. Taylor, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture
 Paul Landis, Washington State College

Thursday, September 6th

9:00 a.m. Presiding: Neal Gross, Harvard University
 Tepoztlán Restudied: A Critique of the Folk-Urban Conceptualization of Social Change
 Oscar Lewis, University of Illinois
 Discussant: Ralph L. Beals, University of California at Los Angeles
 (Second paper to be added)

7:00 p.m. Annual Dinner

Presiding: Carl C. Taylor, USDA
 Presidential Addresses:
 Sociology and the World Crisis, Robert C. Angell, American Sociological Society
 Sociological Training for Professional People from Other Cultures, Robert A. Polson, Rural Sociological Society

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